

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 110 134

JC 750-441

AUTHOR Clampitt, Joyce, Ed.
TITLE New Responses to New Problems Facing the Rural Community College. Proceedings of [the] Annual Workshop, Southeastern Community College Leadership Program (16th, Tallahassee, Florida, March 12-14, 1975).
INSTITUTION Center for State and Regional Leadership, Florida.
SPONS AGENCY Florida State Univ., Tallahassee.; Florida Univ., Gainesville.
PUB DATE 75
NOTE 130p.; For related documents, see JC 750 442-445
AVAILABLE FROM Center for State and Regional Leadership, Florida State University, 507 South Woodward Avenue, Room 225, Tallahassee, Florida 32304 (\$3.00)
EDRS PRICE MF-\$0.76 HC-\$6.97 PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS Change Strategies; College Planning; College Role; *Conference Reports; Educational Finance; *Educational Problems; Financial Support; *Junior Colleges; Rural Economics; *Rural Education; *Rural Schools; Staff Improvement; Staff Utilization; Vocational Education

ABSTRACT

Rural colleges have problems specific to their environment, such as transportation over great distances, a low tax base, "provincialism" and conservatism, and insufficient funding. The general theme of the conference proceedings is the potential role of the rural community college in the improvement of rural life. The addresses are entitled: (1) "New Problems Confronting Rural Institutions," (2) "Strategies for Providing Community Service," (3) "Staff Development for the Rural Community College," (4) "Reflections and Perspectives" (an historical note), (5) "Innovative Approaches to Occupational Programs for the Two-Year Colleges," (6) "Utilization of Forgotten Resources for the Rural College," (7) "Some Practical and Philosophical Considerations for Utilizing Faculty at the Rural Community College," (8) "Extending Funding Bases for the Rural Colleges: State Resources, Federal Resources, Alternative Sources," (9) "Techniques for Fostering Change," (10) "Curriculum Reform in Rural Colleges." Outlines of work sessions dealing with the issues of understaffing, student entry level, the rural stigma, staff commitment to the comprehensive college, staffing patterns, community services, and competing for federal funds, present participant conclusions and recommendations for action on these problems.

(MJK)

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Proceedings of

16th ANNUAL WORKSHOP

SOUTHEASTERN COMMUNITY COLLEGE LEADERSHIP PROGRAM

Tallahassee, Florida

March 12-14, 1975

New Responses To New Problems Facing The Rural Community College

Co-Sponsored by

The Florida State University
Tallahassee, Florida 32306

and

The University of Florida
Gainesville, Florida 32601

Joyce Clampitt, Editor

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FOREWORD

The Southeastern Community College Leadership Program sponsored jointly by The Florida State University and The University of Florida takes pride in the fact 16 consecutive annual workshops have been sponsored for professionals and policymakers of the two-year institutions throughout the Southeastern region of the United States. An effort is made each year to identify an emerging or immediate problem area toward which to direct the workshop. Testimony to the timeliness and relevance of this year's workshop topic on rural community colleges can be seen in the fact that the original quota of participants was increased due to the number of telephone calls and letters requesting special consideration for attendance in spite of the ceiling. Dr. James L. Wattenbarger, Director of the Institute of Higher Education at The University of Florida, and I agreed to re-establish the limit to correspond with the maximum number that could be accommodated at the conference center. A cursory review of the list of participants at the end of this proceedings report will enable the reader to see the increased number of participants and the many states represented.

The Southeastern Community College Leadership Program originally was established as a result of a grant from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. For the past six years, the annual workshop has been financially self-sustaining. Nevertheless, we gratefully acknowledge the W. K. Kellogg Foundation for making the SCCLP possible and then supporting it for more than a decade.

We wish to thank the resource people who served our 16th Annual Workshop so well. We also wish to express deep appreciation to the small group discussion leaders for an excellent job and prompt reporting of group discussion. We are grateful to the doctoral students at The Florida State University and The University of Florida who were helpful during the planning and conduct of the workshop as well as Mrs. Mary Alva Hornsby and Mrs. Phyllis Steinmetz whose secretarial services made the program and this report possible.

The Florida State University and The University of Florida SCCLP directors have committed themselves to continuing attention to the problems and opportunities confronting rural community colleges. Pre-service and in-service training emphases as well as action research can be anticipated over the next several years. Institutions interested in participating in this effort or wishing services should communicate directly with Jim Wattenbarger or me.

Louis W. Bender
FSU SCCLP Director

SOUTHEASTERN COMMUNITY COLLEGE LEADERSHIP PROGRAM
(Sponsored Jointly By The Florida State
University and The University of Florida)

16th Annual Workshop
March 12-14, 1975
Ramada Inn
Tallahassee, Florida

"New Responses to New Problems
Facing the Rural Community College"

Wednesday, March 12

11:00 a.m. - 5:00 p.m. Registration - Lobby

1:00 p.m. Welcome and Introduction
Kings Banquet Room

Presiding: Dr. Louis W. Bender
Director and Professor of Higher Education
The Florida State University

1:15 p.m. Goals of Workshop

Dr. F. Craig Johnson
Professor of Education
The Florida State University

1:30 p.m. New Problems Confronting Rural
Institutions

Speaker: Dr. Herbert E. Phillips
President, Lake City Community College
Lake City, Florida

2:30 p.m.

Coffee Break

2:45 p.m.

Strategies for Providing
Community Services

Speaker: Dr. Larry J. Blake
President, Frazer Valley Community College
Abbotsford, British Columbia, Canada

3:45 p.m.

Staff Development for the Rural
College

Speaker: Dr. William R. Richardson
Vice President for Planning & Development
Wilkes Community College
Wilkesboro, North Carolina

4:45 p.m.

Adjournment

6:00 p.m.

Hospitality Hour - Suite 288

7:00 p.m.

Banquet - Kings Banquet Room

Presiding: Dr. James L. Wattenbarger
Director, Institute of Higher Education
The University of Florida

Presiding: Dr. Maurice Litton
Professor of Higher Education
The Florida State University

Topic: "Reflections and Projections"

Thursday, March 13

9:00 a.m.

Opening Remarks: Kings Banquet Room
Presiding: Dr. Louis W. Bender

Identification and Assignment of
Work Groups

Joyce A. Clappitt, Doctoral Student
The Florida State University

9:30 a.m.

Innovative Approaches to Occupational
Programs

Speaker: Dr. Angelo Gilli, Sr.
Head, Department of Vocational Education
Pennsylvania State University
University Park, Pennsylvania

10:30 a.m.

Coffee Break

10:45 a.m.

Utilization of Forgotten Resources
for the Rural College

Speaker: Dr. Robert Schleiger
Executive Director, Nebraska State Board
for Technical & Community Colleges
Lincoln, Nebraska

12:00 noon

Lunch

1:15 p.m.

Some Practical and Philosophical
Considerations for Utilizing Faculty
at the Rural Community College

Speaker: Dr. George B. Vaughan
President, Mountain Empire Community College
Big Stone Gap, Virginia

2:15 p.m.

Coffee Break

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2:30 p.m..

Work Session I - Assigned Meeting Rooms

3:30 p.m.

Extending Funding Bases for the Rural College: Kings Banquet Room

Panel: Dr. James L. Wattenbarger
"State Resources"

Dr. Bonny Franke
Director, Division of Development
South Carolina State Board for
Technical & Comprehensive Education
Columbia, South Carolina
"Federal Resources"

Dr. Louis W. Bender
"Alternative Sources"

4:15 p.m.

Work Session II - Assigned Meeting Rooms

5:00 p.m.

Adjournment

Friday, March 14

9:00 a.m.

Opening Remarks: Kings Banquet Room
Presiding: Dr. James L. Wattenbarger

Techniques for Fostering Change

Speaker: Dr. James Davis
Dean, Ferrum College
Ferrum, Virginia

10:15 a.m.

Coffee Break

10:30 a.m.

Work Session III - Assigned Meeting Rooms

12:00 noon

Lunch

1:15 p.m.

Curriculum Reform in Rural Colleges

Speaker: Dr. Marion Neil
Associate Professor of Higher Education
The Florida State University

2:00 p.m.

Work Session Reports and Evaluation

3:00 p.m.

Adjournment



"GOALS OF WORKSHOP"

by

Dr. F. Craig Johnson

Professor of Education

The Florida State University

Tallahassee, Florida

THE GOALS OF THE WORKSHOP

In order to outline the goals of this conference, it is necessary first to ask what self-objectives or goals the people attending have and some of you probably wonder what goals we sponsors have. I would expect you participants want an opportunity to hear from people who are qualified to address the specific problems of the rural community college. From this you should get an inventory of problems and solutions to consider. You also seek an opportunity to meet people and to share ideas with them.

When you get home and are asked, "Was it a good meeting?" we hope you will say, "It was planned to give up-to-date, significant information about the unique role of rural community colleges. I was interested in the problems as they were presented since they dealt with significant issues. I was able to contribute some to the thinking of others. I met some people I wish to remain in contact with."

By the end of this conference, we, the staff hope to have answers to these questions, "What ideas presented here should be given a wider audience? Which should be included in the proceedings? Should additional exchange of views on this topic be considered?"

There are five problem areas each of us should address including: Where are we? Where we should be? What blocks our getting to where we should be? How do we remove those blocks? and What can we do about it?

We have sought to bring resource people who are not only successful rural community college practitioners but also inclined to question why? Why is it so? Why not try new approaches? and Why shouldn't problems be viewed as opportunities? In these next several days, it is our hope that opportunities of the rural community college will result in concrete ideas and commitment for action be the many leaders here in attendance. Thank you.



"NEW PROBLEMS CONFRONTING RURAL INSTITUTIONS"

by

Dr. Herbert E. Phillips

President

Lake City Community College

Lake City, Florida

NEW PROBLEMS CONFRONTING RURAL INSTITUTIONS

I'm aware, that I should say something funny to begin this talk. But there is very little funny about this subject. So I'll start off by giving the title a little clarification. Let's define a few terms. NEW -- there is nothing new under the sun. Some of the situations have been present for a long time. PROBLEMS -- at our place we prefer to call these "opportunities." It does seem, though, that a person has more opportunities these days! CONFRONTING -- opposing defiantly. RURAL -- What is "rural?" To all the other towns in our district, Lake City is urban, up town, the big city. To many of you, our area is really "the sticks." To tell the truth, there are parts of our 5-county area where only Indians have set foot, where the owls cross breed with the chickens, and the sunshine is pumped in. I might say "rural" is more attitude than size.

I'll start off by mentioning some of the big problems. I hope that we can devise or share some solutions. Some of these are discussed here.

1. One problem relates to the squeeze of reduced funds from inflation and recession on the one hand and increased enrollments on the other. The National Center for Education Statistics reveals that enrollments have increased nationwide for the second straight year. Overall, this increase is 5.5% this year, and the increase is 6.3 for public institutions. It seems that unemployment causes people to be dissatisfied with their old trades and want to change or to give themselves a wider range of options. In times like these, if a person can't get a job, he goes to school. When the universities increase their tuition, a worse press is on the community colleges where tuition is usually lower. Another related but smaller problem is that tuitions are going up while the student's buying power is going down.
2. A second problem arises from the nation-wide emphasis on experiential education, be it co-op, community services for credit, S.I.E., on-the-job training, or whatever you call it. Despite

Dewey's demise, most of us are believers. One can learn better by doing, but look at a few of the problems:

- a. In rural areas, the number of proper and adequate experiences or of agencies which can provide proper experiences are limited, if indeed they exist at all.
 - b. We must go outside our district to secure proper experiences. The costs then become greater for the student and for the college which furnishes coordination and supervision. Furthermore, having the jobs outside the area contributes to the out-migration of students, which is bad enough already. This out-migration is in itself, another dilemma. Shall we train students for good jobs outside the area and lose them or train them for lesser paying jobs and keep them?
3. Still another problem is the general lack of understanding which still exists as to the goal and missions of a community college. The swing all over the country is to make our colleges community-based. Indeed, I might say that there may be some institutions represented here who give only lip service to "community" and to "community service."

The rationalization is given that if we try to be all things to all people, we may become nothing to all people. That is bull! One of the problems that we rural institutions have is that we are the only agency which has the expertise and the desire to do the many needed and worthwhile things that could be done by one of many agencies in a city. We are just about the only source of help the small towns and cities have.

Max King, Brevard president, said, "This one function, service to the community, is what the community college purpose is all about." Dr. Ben Wygal of Florida Junior College at Jacksonville has stated, "A tremendous challenge is before us in cooperation and coordination with other institutions to provide educational and human resources that are truly community-based."

If it is a problem to Jacksonville, consider these ramifications:

- a. The identification of appropriate experiences

so that credit can be given for community services.

- b. The dearth of available part-time teachers, especially in occupational subjects, and other resource people.
 - c. The lack of participants in any activity, just from the small population base or the distance involved.
 - d. The absence of appropriate available community resources.
 - e. The lack of money for a large portion of the population to pay for education, cultural activities, other services offered by community colleges but not fundable from state funds.
 - f. The necessity to provide cultural, avocational, personal enrichment experiences since the community college is the only source for such things in a rural college.
 - g. The use of college facilities is a big part of being community based, community oriented. There is no way to make the college facilities available without its costing the college over the short haul as well as the long haul.
4. The renewed push on affirmative action, while commendable and desirable, presents problems unique to the rural areas. Minority groups are not likely to be present in the state ratios, thereby making quotas inappropriate. The college represents the best jobs in the areas so few people move, resulting in few openings. Minority race members from outside are not rushing to move in while the local minority race members have been more adversely affected by the old separate school policy than citizens of larger cities and districts. No significant pools exist for minority races or women as a result.
5. We have some problems because of the nature of the area and the people we serve. Where Lake City Community College is located, prevailing attitudes give us some concerns. The school is a center of rural life. This is a "plus." On the other hand, parental occupations and their educational aspirations and attainment levels are generally low. Consequently, there is a failure

to appreciate the value of an education. It is, difficult for parents with less than high school education (or even limited to high school education) to appropriately advise their children and to provide them with the models that many of us had in our growing up. In rural areas, values are much more conservative than we find in the metropolitan areas. With these factors in mind, there is generally an under-investment in education.

At times, you probably have a problem in attracting some faculty members to live in rural areas. Some of ours have never been able to leave the bright lights of Gainesville to come live in Lake City. At any rate, adequate housing is difficult. Taking university courses is quite difficult for them too.

For those faculty members who do come and live here -- well, their political viewpoints and life styles sometimes differ sharply with those of local leaders. I think that we can provide a healthy counterbalance to some raw forms of provincialism, but I'm afraid that some presidents of rural institutions have an attitudinal aversion to any risk. Too many of us are too comfortable and do not want our boat rocked in any way, shape, or form. There is a high proportion of small schools with rather narrow programs and unsophisticated students within the district. Our communities do not attract the kinds of industry to cause job creation and job growth. The cultural lag and the provincialism of rural areas are sometimes a big problem.

Students experience trouble in entering into and subsequently advancing in higher level jobs. A lack of career information around the communities causes a significant amount of occupational immobility. This means that the career choices that are made tend to be beneath the abilities of our people. Low career and educational aspirations tend to result in high dropout rates from the public schools, and, in turn, from college. In fact, there is actually a relatively low college attendance rate from within the population.

6. "Rural" also connotes "distance." Indeed, transportation to college, to jobs, and on field trips is a factor of time and expense. It also affects the schedule of classes.

"Rural" also makes visibility of the students, the staff, the activities, and the campus more difficult. For instance, athletic and other college events have a difficult time in drawing crowds.

Another example is the need to take the teacher to night classes in outlying areas which deprives those students of the use of campus facilities, especially the library. The college is indeed on the horns of a dilemma -- dorms on one hand or long distance commuting on the other. Arthur Chickering makes a very strong case against commuters -- and rural community college students have more time in transit than any others. Transportation is always a problem, especially without mass transit or other public transportation.

Another illustration of the difficulty of distance is the need to consider large geographic areas and thus, to establish new forms of communication. The use of media in a highly dispersed area does not have the same potential as does the media in a city. In many cases, you are dealing with weekly newspapers rather than daily ones or you may be dealing with populations which do not use the newspapers to the same degree as do urban populations. What are some of the different delivery systems that are necessary to accommodate that need? Increased use of radio and excellent relationships with nearby TV stations are both possibilities.

7. Being rural presents some problems to the student, too. Besides the matter of transportation, there is the matter of jobs. Over 55% of our students work and being rural limits the amount of work available, or at least, readily available. Also, an undue proportion need compensatory education, which is a very high-cost program.
8. Being rural often means lack of political clout at state and national levels. We really get the "short end of the stick" on federal projects, CETA, jobless positions, and all the rest. Maybe it is because our development offices are smaller with less expertise. However, I doubt it.
9. The increasing emphasis upon better planning calls for needs assessment, P.P.B.S., M.I.S., and Management by Objectives. Needs assessment becomes more difficult when you have many communities, especially when they are small ones at that. Such an assessment is costlier too. It is tough to service a vast area -- or even a half-vast area.

10. The move toward individualized and performance-based instruction -- despite what anyone says, individualized instruction is more expensive in terms of credit hour produced. From experience, I'll tell you that writing and using behavioral objectives take an expertise that many of us don't have on our campuses. In addition, our communities and our colleges have attracted traditionalists. They are the last to accept anything new. James Rowell says, "Accountability and responsibility for educational output are becoming the watchwords. However, a paradox exists, for all curriculum planning and innovation require great amounts of capital outlay. As monies are becoming increasingly scarce at local levels, schools must look to Federal and State aid, and oftentimes these restricted funds lead to uniformity and stifle a necessary diversity."

Just in case I haven't brought up enough problems, let's assume that being rural also means being small. I believe this will hold since we have no large population centers upon which to draw. I believe we can further assume that being rural and small means you are also inadequately funded. Problems associated with "smallness" are not new and they have not changed:

1. We are not able to have the economies of size. You can't pile the students into the required subjects. You can't fill up the electives, especially art, music, and languages. Administrative costs per F.T.E. are larger for small colleges. On the matter of buildings, small jobs get less competitive bids.
2. With the small colleges, there is insufficient financing to provide a desired number of options in curriculum offerings. Therefore, we tend to design transfer programs with many required subjects and few electives.
3. Many college buildings are deficient in the sizes, quality, and quantity needed, and it is difficult for us to afford equipment for these facilities.
4. Being small also affects the staff member adversely. Some people "wear so many hats" that they can't do justice to all of them. Desire to present a well-rounded program results in teachers having from 3 to 5 preparations, which is hardly conducive to good teaching or morale. This also affects the staffing pattern, because one must, under those circumstances, hire a generalist not a specialist.

With all these problems, who wants to be president of a rural community college? I do. It is the most satisfying job I know.



"STRATEGIES FOR PROVIDING COMMUNITY SERVICES"

by

Dr. Larry J. Blake

President

Frazer Valley Community College

Abbotsford, British Columbia, Canada

STRATEGIES FOR PROVIDING COMMUNITY SERVICE

The term, community services, is one of the most maligned, misunderstood, misused, ill-defined, and over-worked phrases of the community college movement. Nearly every college catalogue has phrases in its Goals and Objectives statement similar to, "to satisfy the unmet educational, cultural, recreational, and social needs of the community." All list a strong commitment to either adult education, continuing education, lifetime learning, or similar phrase indicating its scope of programs for the total adult citizenry of its community. One community college goes so far as to say that its "programs and facilities will be so designed such that every adult citizen of the college community will find a need to set foot on campus at least once each year; of course, whether or not they exercise that option is their own choice."

In talking of strategies for providing community services, I choose to allow those extravagant claims to remain before us, not to restrict our purview by attempting to narrowly define the term. However, it is wise, before discussing strategies, to take a very careful look at the community which is to be served.

It is insufficient to say that it is a "lumbering town", "retirement town", tourist economy", or some other generality, rather, we must recognize that each community is quite complex, with a high degree of heterogeneity. We should be intimately aware of the ethnic and racial make-up, economic break down (including both employed and unemployed), migration patterns, religious preferences, social and political structure, and history of the total community.

Also, we must recognize the vast majority of individuals served through community services are non-traditional students in post-secondary education. In fact, many, if not most, have had unsatisfactory experiences with education in the past and may be reluctant to undertake new ones in the future.

Strategy I - Outreach

As one examines the heterogeneity of his community's population, one is struck by the number of groups which the college is not serving. Perhaps it is the banking community for which no American Institute of Banking courses

have yet to be offered, the carpentry tradesmen for whom the college has never offered new methods of construction, the welfare clientele with their needs of life skills, and consumer education, or a diverse group of supervisors for whom human relations or modern management techniques have never been offered. The key to outreach is not to wait until someone asks for services, but, rather, to identify a specific group, identify their leaders, meet with them and ask them what services the college might provide.

As a result of this outreach, contact with the population to be involved, and subsequent design of program, you may find that the locale of the program will not be a campus location rather the board room of the company, the union recreational hall, or the social room of the senior citizens center.

Remember, your adult population is less familiar with the potentiality of the community college than you are. Thus, outreach is an absolute essential.

Strategy II - Involvement

One of the major reasons for the failure of community service programs is the lack of involvement of the target population. Often someone from the Women's Guild comes in and tells you that the welfare population desperately need courses in nutrition and consumer economics. So you put on the course and no one shows. It is, therefore, necessary to identify the target group, meet with its leaders and involve them in the development of the program; otherwise, no one will show.

Strategy III - Cooperation and Coordination

In the delivery of a wide range of community services, the concept of "turfmanship" has little or no place. It is essential to cooperate and coordinate programs with many other agencies.

One major group are other agencies involved in education, recreation, and cultural activities. These include such agencies and organizations as the YMCA, YWCA, Community Recreation Council, Arts Council, Handicapped Associations, etc. This type of coordination will not only eliminate senseless duplication and competition but will enhance each program or activity through cooperative planning, publicity, and referral. Generally, there is also a need for multiple sponsorship of many new innovative programs.

Another crucial area of cooperation and coordination is with the myriad of other community counselling agencies, such as manpower, human services, welfare, rehabilitation, corrections, mental health, and juvenile agencies. Many of

the citizens of the community for whom community services are desperately needed are clients of one or more of these other agencies. Quite often, again, the responsibility for the delivery of community services in these instances is a shared responsibility, often with shared funding.

Strategy IV - Continual Survey and Feedback

Vital to the development and continuation of the sound community service program is a continual process of survey of need. I have found general public surveys to be of little help except to identify that a certain percent of the population wants courses in art, homemaking, etc. What I suggest are specific surveys geared at specific populations and, if possible, using established mailing lists of associations, organizations, and agencies.

In this way, one can target in on such specific needs as the in-service requirements of medical records secretaries, the upgrading needs of welders, or the legal aid needs of the poor. Inasmuch as we are, for the most part, an oral society, written surveys are insufficient for specific segments of the population. In this case the use of outreach workers going door to door are necessary to develop needs for such groups to get meaningful results as well as to involve them.

Along with continual survey, continual feedback from captive audiences is of considerable assistance in developing future programs. Once you have that group of bankers, carpenters, or unemployed in a program, it is a simple matter to survey them as to what they would like next. This can be done at the same time as evaluation of the program being conducted.

Strategy V - Transportable Packages

A major area relatively untapped by community colleges is the concept of transportable packages of education or learning. By this, I mean the development of a package (not necessarily an individualized automated package) of materials which is needed by more than one group. A highly successful program in the past has been human relations package courses which satisfy the needs of many levels of employees of many industries. Others include packages of management skills, volunteer skills, boardsmanship courses, and regulatory compliance packages.

Strategy VI - Lifetime Learning

As a strategy, lifetime learning forces us to look at a large new spectrum of potential clientele in an entirely different light. If one accepts the fact that all people will continue their education in some form throughout their

lifetime, very likely shopping for educational services as easily as they now shop the supermarket aisles, one recognizes that the entire adult population are potential clientele year after year. The span of courses opened thereby is limited only by one's imagination. Certainly upgrading and in-service education for the broad spectrum of employed individuals, leisure time pursuits, awakened interest in leisure general education, creative activities, volunteerism, are but a few of the possibilities.

The concept of lifetime learning also negates our former feelings that education had to be undertaken in the first one-third of life or it would not be done at all. This, therefore, encourages the "upside down curriculum" where skill and professional training may be done in an intensive early experience with general education scattered throughout lifetime at a time when an individual is interested in learning about political science, cultural differences, social behavior, etc.

In this regard, one of the things which "turns off" adults (and youth) is the use of staid academic titles for general education courses. One possible modification of this is to double-name courses. The first title may be its regular academic title while the second may be an action-oriented, relevant description. Thus, "Introduction to Political Science" becomes "Why Governments Differ", "World History" becomes "Understanding The Lessons of The Past", and "Ethics" becomes "Is Man a Moral Animal".

Finally, lifetime learning forces us to look at the later years in life. Pre-retirement programs can benefit nearly everyone at that crucial time in their lives. Also, a variety of programming for the retired individual can ease his or her adjustment into this abrupt change of life styles.

Strategy VII - New Ways of Learning

One of the biggest hangups which educators have today is that they behave as if we live in an information-poor society when in fact, we live in an information-rich society bombarded on all sides by a vast array of information sources. Yet the educator quite often believes that the only way learning takes place is with the printed word or within the four walls of the classroom as it was fifty years ago. One need only stop a moment and think as to how we are educated in today's society: by newspaper, radio and television; by clubs and organizations; by vacations and travel; by getting back to nature through camping, hiking, and recreation; and in many other ways. If one's imagination can be stretched a bit, all of these methods of learning can be utilized by community service institutions.

Probably the single most important, and most misused, of these information sources is television. Television, particularly cable television, still has the highest potential for significant improvement in delivery of community services of any of the information-rich sources. In order to properly use this media, one must be aware of the mistakes of the past. The key is for personnel to become "visually literate", to take advantage of the strength of the media and not to attempt to merely film an old fashioned lecture.

The strengths of the use of cable television are: delivery of services to the most convenient place for the client, i.e., living room; ability to target on a relatively small dispersed population; multiple channels; future uses of two-way, interactive cable; and low cost. The idea that television is low cost may be surprising, however, Flathead Valley Community College in Northwestern Montana currently broadcasts twenty to thirty hours per week on a total budget of less than \$100,000.00. This project is a pilot project for rural community colleges throughout the United States. Ultimately, with the introduction of two-way, response-oriented cable, this media will prove to be the most significant improvement in the delivery of educational services to come about for some time.

Community Service - An Attitude

In the end, however, the delivery of community services is more than just a series of strategies; rather, it is based upon an attitude of those involved in the process. This attitude is typified by, but not restricted to: open-mindedness, a high tolerance of ambiguity, the reluctance to say no, a high risk tolerance, a sensitivity to the total community, and an ability to listen, listen, listen.



"STAFF DEVELOPMENT FOR THE RURAL COLLEGE"
by

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STAFF DEVELOPMENT FOR THE RURAL COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Introduction

Someday this conference may well be viewed as one turning point in the development of a large and important segment of postsecondary education -- the institutions serving the rural areas of America. These institutions have stood at a distance from the mainstream of national change for too long and, therefore, have not been subjected to the "revolution" that has affected postsecondary education, particularly in the more affluent urban institutions.

The Southeastern Community College Leadership Program members here at Florida State University and the University of Florida are to be commended for the leadership role they are exhibiting in recognizing the unique position and needs of the rural institution. To my knowledge this is the first major conference that has focused on the rural institution; therefore, this is a highly significant conference and one in which I am highly honored to be a participant.

Essentials of the Topic

The term "staff development" has facets of meaning that suggest a condition both restrictive and open-ended; therefore, it possesses the tension of self-contradiction. Staff can be defined as "a body of persons associated in carrying out some special enterprise under the supervision of a manager or chief," and development is defined simply as "gradual evolution or completion." A dichotomy exists, then, between the restrictive "body of persons" and the open-ended "gradual evolution." This apparent contradiction may explain why so many people lack an understanding of the terms.

For the purpose of our discussion today, the "body of persons" is the group operating a two-year postsecondary institution located in a rural area of America with the public responsibility of providing essential educational and training services to the adult population of the service area assigned. The degree to which this institution can effectively meet its public charge will be determined by the effectiveness of a planned evolutionary process which

enables this "body of persons" to identify the various needs of the service population and to develop and carry out programs of education and training to meet these needs, and the accuracy of continued assessment of its efforts. Therefore, staff development must be diagnostic, prescriptive, supportive, and preventative.

One can safely generalize that the quality of service in the community college depends primarily on the quality of the staff. An institution can enroll more and more students, it can employ a wider range of staff personnel, it can build larger and more attractive buildings, and it can develop greater varieties of educational programs and service activities; however, all of this will not produce effective service if the staff is not highly competent for the tasks placed upon it by the dream of the "open-door" college. This is particularly true of the rural two-year institution. One can make the following generalizations that are particularly true of the rural institution:

1. The rural institution is out of the mainstream of innovative action and involvement.
2. The size of the institution does not provide for more than a minimal level of programmatic diversification.
3. Due to its isolation, the institution has difficulty attracting a high level of proven professionals, particularly administrative personnel.
4. Due to the rural nature of its service area with its low level of industrialization, the supportive local tax base does not provide the institution with the level of financial support comparable to urban institutions.
5. Due to the above factors, the staff of a rural institution is primarily composed of public school trained and experienced personnel, and the vast majority of chief administrative officers have been public school principals or superintendents.

These factors or conditions result in a rural institution with a staff that possesses values, attitudes, and beliefs that are directly contrary to the community college's philosophy. As stated by O'Banion, it is "the highly competent and creative staff members who provide leadership, develop quality programs, and encourage community participation who are the key figures in the community junior college." Rural two-year institutions do not possess the cadre of "highly competent and creative" staff members that are more commonly found in larger, more affluent, and progressive urban institutions; therefore, if the rural population is to realize the potential of the "open-door" college, this deficiency of competent and creative staff must be overcome.

Considering the realities facing the rural two-year college, it is highly speculative to assume that staff and service deficiencies can be remedied by any method other than a well-devised plan of personnel development, which could be supported with available resources. It is the development and implementation of such a plan that presents any institution with limitless challenges, and it is the magnitude of these challenges that has deterred the total educational enterprise from accepting and attempting to meet these challenges in any definitive way. If this is accepted as a generalized truth, then we must ask why and how this can be altered; particularly as it relates to rural institutions.

State of the Art

We cannot blatantly condemn education for not having met the challenge of effective staff development; instead, we must consider what has been consuming its entire vitality for the past decade--the unprecedented growth of enrollment in all areas of public education. The growth of postsecondary education during the past decade has been overwhelming; however, this increase in enrollment is gradually peaking, and at the same time more of the newer institutions are meeting the demands for resources and facilities. With the arrival of more stability in postsecondary education, more attention is being focused on the need for effective planning, utilization of resources, improvement in the quality of services, and the extent to which the basic mission has been fulfilled.

As accountability has appeared on the educational scene over the past few years, institutions have become more aware of their responsibilities in meeting the needs of their service population in a realistic and meaningful way. This awareness is focusing increasing attention on the need for a comprehensive program of personnel development based on carefully defined and developed institutional goals.

Although many institutions are in the process of developing comprehensive developmental plans and a few states are just beginning to provide support, the state of the art is indeed primitive.

Parameters for Plan Development

If the state of the art is primitive, where does an institution turn for assistance? To me, the answer is simple and direct--the institution must first turn unto itself. By turning "unto itself," I am implying:

1. That there prevails an institutional climate wherein there is a professional desire to improve the effectiveness of the institution's service;
2. That the institutional leadership realizes the absolute necessity for a system of data gathering and analysis on all aspects of institutional operations;
3. That all analyses should be based on carefully developed institutional and service-program goals and objectives which would provide a basis of input-output evaluations;
4. That all service programming of the institution should be based on assessment of the needs of the population served and that the assessments of these needs should be complete, i.e., that the individual to be served always be "center stage;"
5. That careful and comprehensive analysis should be made of the entire staff of the institution to determine
 - a. The level of understanding of, and commitment to, the philosophy of a "community college,"
 - b. The degree to which each staff member understands and is committed to the goals of the institution and the objectives of their particular professional assignment,
 - c. The distribution of staff in relation to age, sex, and other personal factors within the various areas of the institution,
 - d. The levels of formal education, prior experience (both related and unrelated), and the period of time between the latest episode of formal education and the current assignment, and
 - e. The prevailing attitude within the institution toward involvement in systematic professional development; and
6. Finally; that a detailed analysis be made of available resources for an evolving plan of personnel and institutional development. (This analysis must include institutional resources, community resources, state resources, and national resources).

At this point, one might reasonably say, "This all sounds nice and theoretical; but how can a small institution with limited financial resources, small student population, small unspecialized staff, and a large, sparsely populated service area possibly achieve this level of sophistication?" To me, the answer is quite simple and direct: if the institution is to justify its continued existence, it must reach this minimal level of self-analysis and development. Further, development must become standard operating procedure and the foundation for all institutional planning and evaluation, both short and long-range. I also maintain that all institu-

tions possess this capability regardless of size. But if they do not, then how can they justify continuing the employment of those staff members at public expense?

The power of the presidency in the rural institution is important to consider when one studies the problem of staff development. Unlike the large urban institution, the rural institution is generally under the absolute control of the president with little effective delegation of authority. As previously stated, many of these rural chief administrative officers were originally principals or superintendents. In many instances, therefore, these institutions are operated almost as if they were a rural high school--and not a community college. Indications are that these conditions are gradually being corrected mainly through increasing control at the state level. It would be a mistake for anyone to assume that, in making this observation, I am advocating increased state-level control over two-year colleges; however, I am strongly advocating that the selection process for two-year college presidents be generally improved.

Plan Development

It is suggested that staff development planning and implementation occur in four distinct phases. These four suggested phases are:

1. Climate setting
2. Organizing and Training
3. Plan development and implementation
4. Plan maintenance and evaluation

The climate-setting phase should be initiated when an institution makes the decision to begin development of a plan for institutional staff development. Before initiation occurs, there are certain suggested prerequisites that should be considered. These prerequisites are:

1. That the president understand and be committed to the development of a plan that encompasses all personnel, including himself;
2. That the goals of the institution and the objectives of all programmatic and service activities be clearly defined;
3. That these goals and objectives be directly related to a planning document for the institution;
4. That all administrative personnel be held accountable for support in their area of assignment; and
5. That a carefully devised pre-plan be developed and carried out to maximize a climate of receptivity on the part of all personnel.

Phase two is initiated by the president when authority is delegated to an individual or a committee for plan development. In considering the size of most rural institutions, I suggest that this authority might be more appropriately delegated to a peer-group committee. This committee must represent all discernible peer groups in the institution--administration, faculty divisions, student personnel, library or learning resources center, support, clerical, and maintenance staffs, and adult or continuing education. For most rural institutions, the committee would consist of approximately eight members. It is recommended that this committee should be carefully selected by the president and that the chairman should be the chief academic officer.

When this committee is established, it is of extreme importance that clear, precise guidelines be established for the committee and that the committee membership receive specialized training for assigned responsibility. Committee guidelines might appropriately be based on the following assumptions:

1. That all full-time personnel of the college are qualified for the positions they are assigned; therefore, that each has no greater or lesser need for self-improvement opportunities than any other, regardless of position assignment;
2. That staff development can provide a means for the institution to more effectively attain its goals;
3. That development can be achieved by insuring that all personnel--administrative, staff, faculty, and support--have planned opportunities to improve their competencies, particularly in the areas of their assignment;
4. That to be justified, these opportunities must have the potential of enhancing both the capabilities and desires of the individual;
5. That these opportunities are based on those needs that are identified by individuals and peer groups;
6. That the most desirable way to provide these opportunities is through a planned and coordinated program that would meet identified needs and which could be supported by available resources.

Specialized training for the committee membership is, in all probability, the most important aspect of plan development. To be effective, this committee must become the campus "expert" on staff development. This "expertise" can be achieved through a carefully developed training plan that should be carried out with intensity during the first year and with less intensity thereafter. This training program should include, but not be limited to, such activities as acquiring a library of resource and reference

materials, understanding thoroughly the nature and implications of the institution's long-range plan, visiting (as a group and individually) institutions that have an on-going plan for staff development, acquiring specialized resource persons to work with the committee, and attending a variety of conferences that have topics or discussions basic to the affairs of the committee.

It is further recommended that this should be a standing committee and that all committee members except administrative should be given an additional salary increment for committee service and/or some consideration given for released time.

Tentative completion of phases one and two brings an institution to the critical point in institutional staff development. It is at this point that the president must insure that an intensive appraisal is made to determine the following:

1. The degree to which a climate of receptivity has successfully been established throughout the institution;
2. The level of administrative commitment to the value, worth, and need for development activity throughout the institution;
3. The extent to which institutional resources will be allocated to developmental activities;
4. The effective level of committee training and an accurate assessment of committee belief in and commitment to its responsibilities;
5. The degree to which the president personally perceives an institutional need for development, his willingness to commit the weight of his office to its effective involvement, the extent to which he will commit institutional resources, and the degree to which he will permit changes to occur as a resultant of the developmental process. (This is an analysis the president must make within himself and it is by far the most critical to an effective developmental program).

This presents the institution with a "moment of truth." In light of careful analysis, a "stop-go" decision must be made in the full realization of decision consequences upon the future of the institution. The program is development; development is change; change is planning and just plain "hard work" by a professional team. If the institution is not willing to face the realities of potential risks as well as the rewards, the decision must be "stop" and retain the status quo. If the decision is "go," then the institution has passed the point of no return. Any reversion to

the previous status quo could have a high risk potential of bringing the institution to a lowered level of service effectiveness.

The third phase encompasses major committee operational responsibilities. The responsibilities can be summarized as consisting of the following five comprehensive activities:

1. Receiving and analyzing needs identified by individuals and peer groups,
2. Identifying support requirements,
3. Identifying resources and constraints,
4. Organizing means to meet needs, and
5. Developing an operating programmatic plan.

It would be a dangerous assumption for any institution to expect that an effective level of operational plan implementation could be achieved within one year. More realistically, any institution entering such a comprehensive plan of development should view it as a five-year developmental project. Although these three phases are being presented as separate developmental steps, in the realities of institutional action, they are part of a unified whole being developed simultaneously.

The final phase, plan implementation and evaluation, would be a continuous process as long as the institution had an organized plan for institutional staff development. Many aspects of this process would ordinarily be integrated into regular operating procedures of the institution.

Ultimate success of any plan for staff development is dependent upon the quality of evaluation processes. Evaluation in this context refers to the degree to which an institution is willing to assess all aspects of operations, from institutional planning to activity objectives. The results of this type of evaluation provide the bases for continued plan assessment and revision, thereby insuring that development activity is always keyed to individual and institutional needs.

Staff development for the rural institution is not a debatable need. The challenges facing the rural institution are of such nature and magnitude that they cannot effectively be met with anything less than complete utilization of all resources, be they material or human. Any institution can realize its full potential with existing resources if its leadership has the insight and desire to set this as the ultimate goal.

Stuart Miller, in Dialogue in Education, illustrates vividly the need for staff development in education in his portrayal of educators. "There was a grayness about them;

their beings had been grayed by their fierce attempt to give importance to what was not important." William Arrowsmith gave further amplification when he stated that, "It is possible for a student to go from kindergarten through graduate school without ever encountering a man; a man who might for the first time give him the only profound motivation for learning, the hope of becoming a better man." Can staff development continue to be a debatable issue for the rural two-year institution?



"REFLECTIONS AND PROJECTIONS"

by

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REFLECTIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

If this conference had been held prior to World War II, chances are that the adjective "rural" would not have appeared in the theme title. The two-year college movement was largely a rural college movement and "rural" would simply have been redundant.

Before World War II, the number of private colleges exceeded the number of public ones and most of these private colleges were located in quiet secluded sites. In the public sector there seemed to be a feeling that there ought to be a college in each town -- small (two-year) college for the small town and a large (four-year) college for the large town. In fact, wanting to be big town, i.e., change the junior college to a senior college has been one of the persistent problems.

Let's talk for a few minutes about historical developments in the hope that we can become aware of the leadership provided by rural colleges.

You know the often-quoted statistics for the decade of the sixties; how the number of public colleges doubled and their enrollment almost quadrupled (Koltai and Thurston, 1971). Tremendous growth, but do you remember that from 1922 to 1932 the number of two-year colleges more than doubled (207 to 469; a 125 percent increase) and the enrollment went from 16,121 to 97,631; a six-fold increase. The next decade, 1932-42, was less spectacular, but it had a 35 percent increase in the number of institutions and a 175 percent increase in enrollment.

My point, of course, is that when the movement was more closely identified with rural communities, its growth and development was just as impressive as it has been in recent years.

Lamoni, Iowa; Poultney, Vermont; and Conway, Arkansas would hardly be considered urban centers either now or at the time they contributed to our story. They are, or were, the hometowns of Graceland College, Green Mountain Junior College, and Central College, rural colleges by; I suspect, the most demanding definition of what is meant by rural. From the presidency of these three rural colleges has come 44 years of leadership to the national organization, the American Association of Junior Colleges, and its successor,

the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges. Three men, Dr. Doak S. Campbell, from Central College (16 years); Dr. Jesse P. Bogue from Green Mountain Junior College (12 years); and Dr. Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., from Graceland College (16 years and still going), have served as the executive secretary (director) for almost the entire history of the organization.²

Walter Crosby Eels dubbed the 34 educators who gathered in St. Louis, Missouri, June 30 and July 1, 1920, to found the AAJC as the "junior college patriarchs." Delegates attended from Columbia, Nevada, Fredericktown, Fulton, St. Charles, and Mexico in Missouri. Greenville, Marshall, and Meridian, Texas, sent representatives as did Marion, Alabama; Louisburg, North Carolina; Lamoni, Iowa; Bristol, Virginia; Holly Springs, Mississippi; Murfreesboro, Tennessee; and Carlinville and Joliet, Illinois. These 18 rural communities accounted for 24 of the 34 representatives.

Most of you are familiar with the excellent state plan for two-year colleges developed by Dr. James Wattenbarger and others for the State of Florida. Indeed, Florida is generally recognized as the first state to carefully plan for orderly development of its two-year colleges. Testimony to the excellent job that was done has been the imitation of several of our sister states here in the Southeast.

But are you aware that in 1928, Mississippi, and I believe you will agree that it can be classified as a rural state, established a commission of junior colleges responsible for the control and accreditation of two-year colleges? And that the commission, in 1928, created 13 districts encompassing almost every county in the state. No changes in the districting were made until 1948 and basically the districting is the same today as it was then. Expansion has taken the form of multiple campuses. This "controlled development," as it was called, was the brainchild of Knox Broom who, at the time, was supervisor of agricultural high schools for the Mississippi State Department of Education.

Mr. Broom is one of the almost forgotten heroes in the story of the development of the community college, but he ranks along with Lange of California, Campbell of Arkansas (and later Tennessee), and Koos of Chicago as a man of vision who could see the potential of the two-year college if it would develop the kinds of programs that were needed by the people. It was he who first referred to these colleges as "the people's colleges" and, after retirement in 1947, speaking to a group of Mississippi junior college educators, he gave this admonition:

If ever you men in the junior colleges fail to emphasize the fact that you are close to and deeply interested in the common folks

and their needs in their home communities,
then you will have nothing to stand on in
this state.³

Do you suppose the present-day advocates of community services are aware of this early plea?

I have suggested three things. First, when the two-year college movement was clearly identified with rural communities the growth was no less spectacular than when the identification shifted to urban colleges. Second, the rural colleges have contributed heavily to the leadership at the national level -- I have offered some bits of evidence; much more could be identified. Third, rural and backward are not synonymous when talking about states that have been leaders in this movement.

In a whimsical, and to some extent, nostalgic, mood, I sometimes think that the junior college is similar to the country boy who grows up and goes to town. Coming of age presents one set of problems and changing environments presents another. Certainly the colleges in rural communities have problems, but at least they deal with them in a familiar environment.

In your conference you are seeking to find new responses to new and old problems. You will find them, and I know that in the future, just as in the past, the rural college will contribute more than their fair share to the leadership in the community college movement.

Footnotes

¹ Phebe Ward, "Development of the Junior College Movement," in American Junior Colleges, edited by Jesse P. Bogue. Third edition (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1952), p. 9.

² Michael Brick, Forum and Focus for the Junior College Movement (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 197, 201-206.

³ Jesse Parker Bogue, The Community College (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950), p. 86.

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"INNOVATIVE APPROACHES TO OCCUPATIONAL PROGRAMS
by

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INNOVATIVE APPROACHES TO OCCUPATIONAL PROGRAMS FOR THE RURAL TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

Introduction

Some people believe that the best chances of improving rural life is through education. Rural educational problems cannot be understood without a knowledge and understanding of the social and economic conditions that led to their creation. Most out-of-school rural persons receive little or no services from the schools in their areas, although other agencies have provided some educational activities. Rural communities have been defined as agricultural communities with no population center larger than 2500. A further breakdown subcategorizes into farm populations (i.e., those who don't live in villages, towns and hamlets of under 2500) and "non-farm" populations (i.e., other than farm residents). As recently as 1972, 63 percent of all farms reported sales of less than \$10,000 (Lerner, 1973), an indication that, for most farmers, their operations result in below average incomes. From this, it is safe to infer that many non-farm rural adults also have correspondingly low incomes. The result of this, of course, is reduced living standards and is reflected in a correspondingly poorer quality of health care and educational services for rural populations.

A viable rural America is essential if our entire country is to prosper in the true sense. Such an undertaking can originate only through large-scale efforts by several kinds of agencies, among which is the most important educational delivery system. Because of the decline in commercial agricultural employment, a substantial segment of the rural labor supply must be educated and trained for nonagricultural kinds of occupations. Such an endeavor calls for intelligent planning, implementation, and evaluation of a broad type of vocational education programs expressly tailored for rural job-seeking persons.

Rural education needs improvement and vocational education, in the opinion of this author, is within the very heart of achieving excellence in this effort.

Occupational education has, as one of its theoretical constructs, a major goal to provide persons with knowledge, skills, and attributes that will better enable them to

achieve happy and fulfilling life-roles associated with work (Gillie, 1973). Modes and strategies for addressing vocational occupational education to this important goal are best chosen within the students' environmental context. It should be emphasized that such a concern is ignored or negated by assumptions that the same occupational education is equally appropriate for rural and non-rural students. The age and previous experience of the student are also factors that need to be inserted into one's personal equation for assisting that individual in making judgments regarding occupational programs.

You may wonder, at this point, why the nonvocational or preprofessional programs have not been mentioned. Simply stated, the reason is that such curricula are already provided in an excellent manner in many senior colleges and universities interspersed in every state of this nation. Such programs are far from overcrowded in most senior colleges and universities and the situation is predicted to remain this way for many years. The offering of such programs by the rural community-junior colleges represents a redundancy of educational efforts, which is clearly uncalled for in most places in these times of economic inflation and educational depression. In the opinion of this author, vocational studies are the most viable educational configurations that rural community-junior colleges can offer. Therefore, these rural students in need of the preprofessionally oriented education would be counseled into an appropriate senior college or university at the conclusion of high school. This approach, would then result in rural community colleges being heavily oriented toward vocational studies.

Much of this paper is based on the thesis that occupational curricula ought to be primarily concerned with the vocational needs of the students within the rubric of their personal concerns as well as the concerns of the larger society—a blend that is not always easily achieved. To best accomplish this, rural persons must be provided vocational studies that include: (a) the acquisition of social, economic, and political facts that relate to their present and future lives, as well as their present and future employment concerns, (b) an opportunity to consider and perhaps ultimately select an occupational program that would provide orientation and preparation for rural-oriented jobs, and (c) an opportunity to consider and perhaps ultimately select an occupational program that would provide orientation and preparation for jobs located in urban settings.

Students ought to make such a selection with professional assistance from a vocationally-oriented counseling service that incorporates the expertise of professional occupational educators. It should be pointed out that this process involves several layers of decision-making, which includes selecting a

future occupation, which cannot be isolated from such concerns as a shift in life-style, breaking with family ties, and other factors associated with leaving one's home community. The rural student has more decisions to make at the onset than does his urban counterpart, because the rural person needs to decide if he wants to leave his present community or region. Most youth already living in non-rural areas need not give this factor immediate consideration in their career decision-making, as most first occupational opportunities are in places not unlike those in which non-rural persons presently reside.

These added concerns place heavier demands upon rural community-junior colleges. Their curricula must be realistic in terms of rural concerns for those who will stay, and equally realistic for those persons who plan to leave their rural environs upon reaching adulthood. Interestingly, there is one indication that the trend of migrating from rural to urban places has slowed in recent years, and has even reversed in some places. An indication of this is the recent near-zero farm out-migration experienced since 1972 (Lerner, 1973). In light of this, it is crucial to provide rural youth with insight into these recent trends, along with other information. For those who elect to remain in the rural setting, the school should seek to engender a desire in them to bring about improvements in rural living. Closer cooperation between general education and vocational education is the key for achievement of this objective. A good rural vocational studies program would be based upon social, economic, and political facts relevant to that environment, out of which a broad-based vocational program would emerge.

Rural education must deal with three distinct age groups: 14 to 19 year olds (who comprised 13.6 percent of the total farm population in 1970), and 45 to 64 year olds (about one fourth of that group), and the elderly (11.6 percent of the farm population) (Lerner, 1973). It has long been known that small rural schools lack sufficient resources to serve such diverse groups. Regionalization is partially the result of knowing this, and it does tend to reduce these limitations. The inauguration of rural community colleges that serve on a regional basis is a logical extension of this belief.

While the high school has been an important catalyst in the rural community, the community college has only begun to serve such a purpose during the past twenty years in most rural places. It is believed by many persons that regional rural community colleges have the potential to help villages, towns, hamlets, and farms to become more viable places in which to live, work, and recreate. A reasonable degree of local autonomy is required for best

achievement of these goals and this is most likely to occur if the institution is a viable one, which demands that it be large enough to command sufficient resources to provide an array of educational services and facilities for needs of rural people. The minimum size (i.e., the critical mass) of the rural community college needs to be more closely examined in terms of minimum faculty and enrollments. This author believes that a rural community-junior college, if it is to have the diversity in vocational studies required for their unique clientele, ought to have a minimum of 1,000 full-time students. At the present time, about 500 community colleges presently fall below that size (see Table 1) (AACJC Directory, 1974), many of which are in non-urban areas. A substantial number of these can't possibly serve their students adequately until they resort to some type of regionalization configuration. In 1970, 26.5 percent of the United States population (just under 54 million) resided in rural areas. Therefore, rural community college potential enrollments encompass a substantial segment of our population. But many of them need to serve larger geographic areas than found in other places and will likely require residential facilities for their clients that come from beyond reasonable commuting distance.

The Young Rural Student

The "young" student in this paper refers to adolescents and young adults who have had little, if any, occupational experiences of a full-time, permanent nature. For the community colleges, most of these are persons in the 17 through 22 age category. As alluded to in an earlier paragraph, an important component within the education of this group is assisting them in reaching a decision regarding geography--whether or not they elect to remain in their present rural location. There is reason to believe rural occupational opportunities will increase as human services related jobs become more common, especially with various forms of state and federal financial subventions. Added to this is a clearly discernible trend for some industries to locate in rural areas, now that the nation's vast interstate highway network is nearly complete. Another observable trend is the desire for many people to get away from urban centers and move to more rural locations in the interest of improving the quality of their lives. It's no longer the case of either working on a farm or moving to the city--new and interesting options are emerging. Rural youngsters should be appraised of these possibilities as an integral part of their career decision-making education. Living in a rural area may very well be recognized as an advantage in the near future.

After making a geographic choice (rural vs. urban), rural

Table 1*

Number of Junior Colleges with Enrollment less than 1000

| State | Number of Colleges with enrollment less than 1000 | Total Number of two-year colleges |
|------------------|---|---|
| Alabama | 12 | 23 |
| Alaska | 8 | 9 |
| Arizona | 2 | 14 |
| Arkansas | 9 | 10 |
| California | 18 | 104 |
| Colorado | 6 | 16 |
| Connecticut | 8 | 22 |
| Delaware | 1 | 6 |
| Washington, D.C. | 3 | 4 |
| Florida | 9 | 32 |
| Georgia | 12 | 24 |
| Hawaii | 2 | 7 |
| Idaho | 1 | 4 |
| Illinois | 10 | 56 |
| Indiana | 2 | 4 |
| Iowa | 19 | 28 |
| Kansas | 16 | 25 |
| Kentucky | 15 | 21 |
| Louisiana | 5 | 7 |
| Maine | 4 | 6 |
| Maryland | 6 | 20 |
| Massachusetts | 22 | 39 |
| Michigan | 10 | 36 |
| Minnesota | 16 | 23 |
| Mississippi | 13 | 25 |
| Missouri | 11 | 20 |
| Montana | 2 | 3 |
| Nebraska | 11 | 14 |
| Nevada | 1 | 3 |
| New Hampshire | 10 | 10 |
| New Jersey | 10 | 23 |
| New Mexico | 10 | 13 |
| New York | 16 | 59 |
| North Carolina | 42 | 67 |
| North Dakota | 3 | 5 |
| Ohio | 22 | 44 |
| Oklahoma | 9 | 19 |
| Oregon | 2 | 16 |
| Pennsylvania | 20 | 48 |
| Rhode Island | 1 | 2 |
| South Carolina | 19 | 37 |
| South Dakota | 5 | 5 |
| Tennessee | 9 | 19 |
| Texas | 21 | 65 |
| Utah | 2 | 5 |
| Vermont | 6 | 7 |
| Virginia | 14 | 30 |
| Washington | 1 | 27 |
| West Virginia | 6 | 8 |
| Wisconsin | 14 | 31 |
| Wyoming | 5 | 7 |
| Total = 501 | | Total = 1147 |

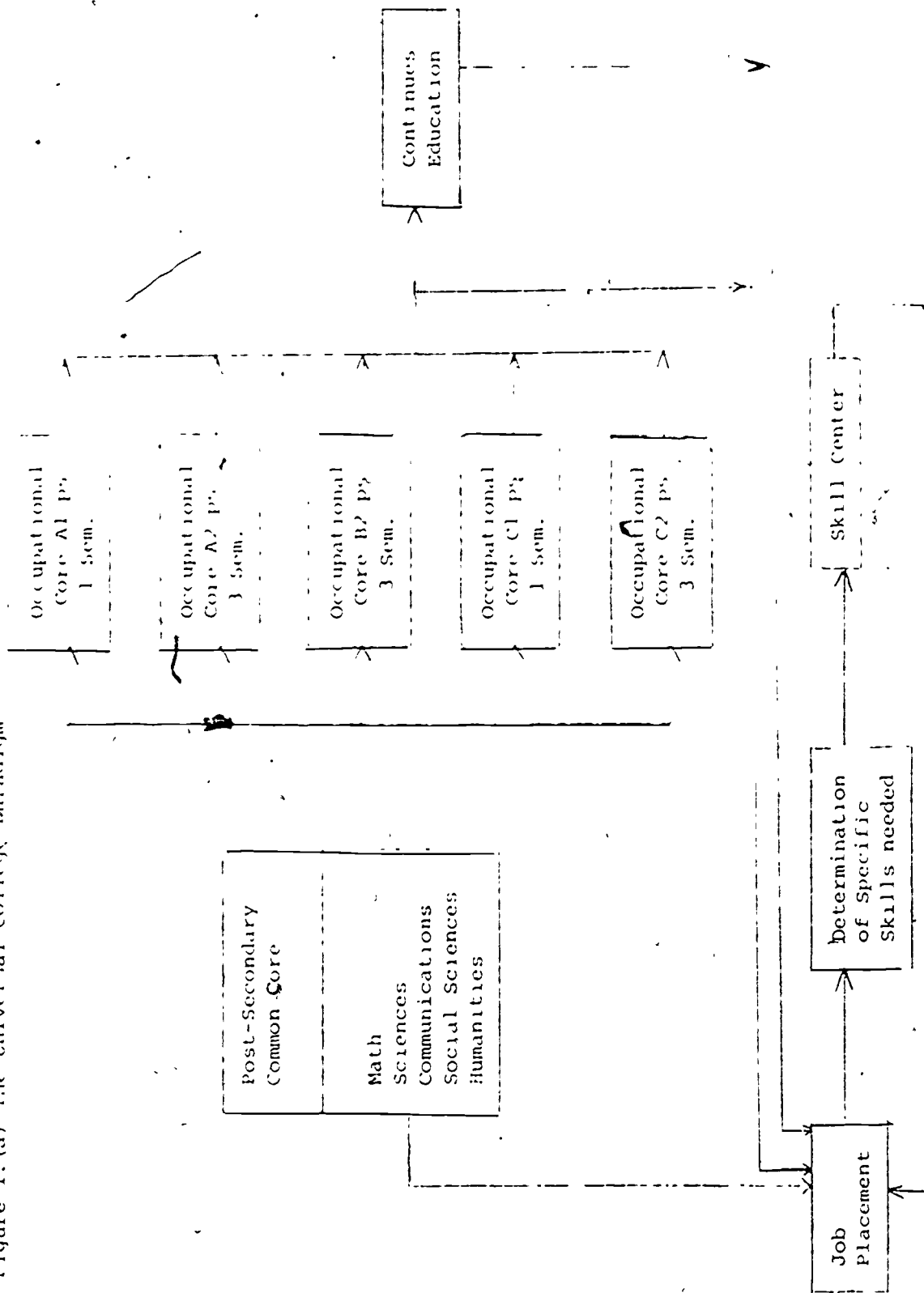
*Extracted from the 1974 AACJC Directory

youngsters can combine that choice with their interests, abilities, and realities of the world market and can opt for an occupational specialty area. This two-step process is not necessarily in the sequence described, of course, but it does call for extensive utilization of vocational guidance professionals during the student's stay in the community college.

The rural community colleges have several extra responsibilities in addition to embracing the responsibilities of their more traditional counterparts and also have the extra task of offering a soundly-based array of rural oriented occupations for those who elect to move in that direction. It is critical that all possible measures be taken to accord them the same status as given to the urban-oriented vocational programs. An innovative aspect of this dual type vocational offering would be the establishment of commonalities that could assist students in "crossing" from one to the other in either direction. Easy entrance and exiting would be highly desirable. A clearly marked departure from traditional vocational studies would be the withholding of skill development until the student is connected with an actual job; only then would he be committed to the highly specialized aspects of the curriculum. The rationale for this approach lies in the belief that the specific skills needed are knowable only after a job has been acquired. Another facet of the basic philosophy behind this type of treatment is that the student has more job options available if specialization is delayed until a job is accepted. Then, with specification of necessary skills by the employer, the student receives the skill development training accurately determined for a particular job. Such a strategy, referred to as the universal college approach elsewhere, provides maximum flexibility for students. (See Gillie, 1973, for details of this approach).

A diagram of this strategy for rural community colleges, displayed in Figure 1, can be more completely described by following an imaginary student through such a configuration. Consider Student A who seeks enrollment in the college. The first encounter that the individual makes would be with the admissions office, followed by that of guidance and counseling services. Student A would be provided with an assessment of his academic-occupational potential, based upon testing, interviewing, and reviewing past achievements. From this and the individual's announced personal interests, the person would be placed into a program (either rural or urban-oriented). At the onset of whatever program chosen, courses common to both program types (i.e., general education offerings) would be the main bill-of-fare, thereby keeping the student's options open for as long as possible. With the timely intervention of various career guidance services as the student proceeds through the program, careful occupational readiness assessments

Figure 1. (a) The Universal College Paradigm*



*Taken, with permission from principles of Post-Secondary Vocational Education by Angelo C. Gillie, Sr., Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1974.

(a) A modification of the original paradigm presented in the source cited.

would be made on a continuing basis. At a time deemed most beneficial for that individual (regardless of the point the student happens to be at in the formal program) a joining of the student to an actual job would be consummated. The employer would, by prior understandings with the college, specify the specific skills needed of the person for that job together with a determination about where these skills could be best developed--"on-the-job" or in a skill-center environment. Should it be decided that the skill-center approach is most beneficial to the student, then a return to such an environment would be in order. The student would go there solely to acquire mastery of the employer-specified skills, after which that person would report to the previously accepted job. This process, coupled with the always available career counseling, could be repeated whenever the student desires or needs to change jobs or employer. When properly administered, it could become an easy entry-exit operation that is unencumbered by limitations of calendar or academic credits. The flexibility afforded by this strategy would permit rural youth to indulge in frequent changes in immediate career plans, thereby providing them with maximum opportunity to adjust to local and contemporary conditions.

It should be pointed out that the rural community college's only chance of achieving respectable efficiency with such a center would be with a minimum enrollment of one thousand students. An ongoing student body of that number would provide the basis for sufficient diversity in programs and skill-center activities to accommodate the occupational needs of the student clientele. Smaller institutions would of necessity have to join together in the sponsoring of such a center, even if it results in the need to provide residential facilities.

The Middle-Aged Rural Student

Many middle-aged persons, perhaps even the majority of them during those years, are involved with one or more job changes. When the switch requires a period of retraining (particularly in a new occupational field), the transition is termed a mid-career change. There are several major reasons for such occupational transitions. The most obvious factor is one that is associated with technological changes, which phase out certain workers from time to time. There is a more important purpose behind such changes, however, and that relates to the desire to leave a non-rewarding job for another one that will provide the worker with greater self-actualization and job satisfaction (O'Toole, 1973). It is common knowledge that personal tastes and interests change with time, and there is little logic behind the belief that one should remain in the same specialized work area for

a lifetime. Our society is and will continue to be dynamic enough to render some occupations obsolete while generating new ones. Rather than view this phenomenon as a handicap to manpower planning, it can be considered as a generator of fortuitous events that continuously engender new occupational configurations, many of which can be attractive to mid-career changers with previous work experiences.

However, there is an inherent difficulty in mid-career changing, and it has to do with economics. Most middle-aged persons seeking to embark on such transitions, at least at the present time, hesitate to initiate such a change unless forced to do so by being laid off. And this is for a good reason. The major impediment is the simple fact that such persons usually have built in ongoing expenses at this point in their lives--generally related to supporting a family, and so on. These components in an individual's life exist and cannot be ignored, although we often try just that when we encourage such persons to go back to school with either no or inadequate income provision for them. Therefore, in the opinion of this writer, to offer mid-career change type programs without including substantial income provisions for the students is a vacuous exercise.

How can we afford to provide so many unemployed persons such income? First of all, it needs to be viewed as a societal capital investment, and not a series of doles. Several ways in which this can be done have been considered on a theoretical level. The most attractive one, it seems to me, is a variety of the sabbatical programs presently extant in education. Like the educational sabbatical, the amount of subvention would be related to the worker's last salary (e.g., about 70 percent in this consideration). This kind of arrangement would be an inducement for mid and late career changers to enter programs that would lead to preparation for higher skill level jobs. Furthermore, if they were induced to do this before they were "laid-off" or prior to the time their old jobs become obsolete, those jobs would serve as entry level occupations for younger persons attempting to enter the labor force. Therefore, from a human investment point of view, it has a double value.

But what about the monetary cost of such a venture? A half million persons, which is about .5 percent of our work force, could receive this type of vocational treatment at a cost of three billion to four billion dollars per year (Striner, 1972). This total is based on sabbatical salaries averaging \$5,600 (70 percent of the average U.S. salary) plus two thousand dollars per person for training, resulting in a mean cost of \$7,600 per person. This effort, in terms of dollars, represents approximately 1 percent of the gross national product. Considering the present congressional trend

toward high concern about employment, such a plan may be sufficiently attractive to be implemented.

How can it be implemented? The present Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (PL 93-203) has the potential, if congress so desires, to conduct such a mid-career changing program at the prime sponsor level. Title III of that legislation has funds earmarked for "special manpower target groups." It would take only several slight modifications (i.e., to include mid-career changers as a segment of the population in need of additional manpower services, and to provide sabbatical type funding described in the preceding paragraphs) to enable this act to be utilized for assisting mid-career changes in the manner described. Although the CETA bill has been termed a mechanism for providing a "city" system of vocational training, it does have ample provisions for rural areas as well.

Therefore, the basic legislation is in place whereby mid-career changers can receive assistance. The rural community colleges, with proper interfacing with the appropriate prime sponsors, can initiate innovative type programs within the universal college configuration described earlier for these mid-career changers. Such an approach, with this form of funding, can become the most viable approach for mid-career changers in the rural segments of our nation.

The Rural Retiree and Hobbists

The traditional view of vocational education is that it prepares persons for entry into the world of work. But, as stated earlier, a newer concept of vocational services is on the scene: it is perceived by some as a mechanism for providing people with assorted skills, ranging from purely manipulative to cognitive, which they seek in the interest of personal and/or occupational fulfillment. This contemporary view is sufficiently broad to include the skill development needs and interest of two important groups of persons traditionally ignored in occupational education: retirees and hobbists.

Several trends relative to worker retirement point to the possibility of changes in some aspects of the vocational education delivery system. The first mechanism that can figure in these changes is the trend in most occupations toward early retirement (Barfield, 1972). Another major factor relative to these concerns deals with changing perceptions of what people want to do after retirement (Sheppard, 1971). Many retirees consider retirement as an opportunity to pursue another occupation, which contradicts the traditional view of retirement as the time one enters a life of idleness. In many cases, the new job contemplated is one in

which the retiree has had some latent interest over a period of time, but hesitated to switch over to at an earlier point because of inconveniences and difficulties that would have been entailed (such as the obstacles faced by present day mid-career changers).

Although the opportunity for early retirement are increasing, life expectancy of the average worker has remained essentially the same over the past decades. Therefore, longer periods of retirement are primarily the result of earlier retirement. The idea of being "put out to pasture," so to speak, is unappealing and even threatening to many Americans. Furthermore, gerontologists are discovering that a changeover from many years of a worker life style to a new one of leisure (and what so often degenerates into enforced idleness) produces serious emotional trauma and early death for many older citizens. It is well known that retirement is not of equal benefit to all who engage in it. We now know that the form and mode of retirement should be more closely tailored to the individuals desires, health, and environmental circumstances. Specialists concerned with gerontology are continuing to conduct research into the effects of enforced idleness upon the mental health (and other traditional retirement effects) and life expectancy of retirees. (Mathiasen, 1953). The findings are expected to further verify that one of the essential ingredients for happy and therefore lengthy post-retirement life is a continuation of activities meaningful to the retiree. Using this assumption as a basis, it is predicted that occupational education will play an important role in these endeavors.

Because of leaving their career at earlier ages and because improved medical services that enable them to remain physically and mentally active for a greater number of years, an increasing number of retirees will launch into preparation for new post-retirement occupations. These could be described as late career changers or first post-retirement changers. Because retirement benefits provide them with some of their financial needs, many retirees will enroll in occupational training programs for personal interest reasons alone, in spite of the fact that many of these jobs offer low remuneration (Fine, 1970). Certain more adventuresome individuals will seize upon this transition in their lives as an intriguing opportunity to pursue an occupation and a life style completely different from their earlier one. It is highly likely that skill, service, and clerical/sales type occupations will experience the major influx of these post-retirement retrained typed individuals in the years ahead, if past older worker trends continue (Sheppard, 1971).

The role of vocational education in all of this will

be to provide special programs expressly designed to prepare retirees for occupations deemed desirable by them and for which jobs are on hand. In many places, a considerable amount of "selling" (to business and industry) needs to be done to overcome the myths that persons over 60 are of little occupational utility to society. Inducements in the form of state and federal government intervention of various forms (including CETA type legislation, tax concessions, etc.) may be needed to assist in initiation of the movement, and the chances of it happening appear good. Rural community colleges could become involved in training and education of retirees who elect to remain or move to a rural community via the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, and subsequent similar legislation. These efforts will add another important dimension to the role of vocational education in our society. Such a movement will account for as much as 20 percent of rural community college efforts from 1980 and thereafter.

A second retirement-related factor that will have an effect on rural community colleges has to do with avocations, hobbies, and other self-improvement type interests. Assisting retirees in pursuing these efforts in the form of short term special course, many of which will be organized spontaneously when a group of persons express an interest in a particular endeavor, will become even more commonplace.

A third factor related to retirees that is likely to affect the rural community college efforts in the future is preparation of greater numbers of persons needed to provide services to retirees, both in the various institutions in which some of them will be domiciled, as well as the other sundry activities unique to retirees.

The role of vocational education for retirees is perceived as one of the growth areas in the entire profession in the decades ahead. As a number of young persons available for school levels off and then tapers off in the future, retirees, as a group, will continue to grow; they will become an expanding element in vocational education until well into the turn of the century. The idea of continuing to work beyond first retirement is an attractive one from medical, social, financial, and personal points of view--four excellent reasons for believing that it should become a common phenomenon in the future.

The kinds of courses and programs needed for these efforts could be comfortably lodged in a universal college configuration within a rural community college.

Conclusions

The rural community colleges have an excellent opportunity at this point in time to provide a rich array of vocational studies for the several kinds of rural clientele seeking such service. The most innovative approach to occupational education is based on a premise that it is a vehicle by which people can improve their situation in society. From this basis, the universal college configuration described here, with considerable interfacing with the financial support available through the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, can be the most viable vehicle for vocational education in the next decade. The rural community colleges, if they so desire, can become the major educational institutions for provision of vocational studies in this mode. The nation must have viable rural communities if it is to remain viable as a whole, and the rural community colleges can be a major catalyst in seeing that this happens.

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4 "UTILIZATION OF FORGOTTEN RESOURCES
FOR THE RURAL COLLEGE"

by

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UTILIZATION OF FORGOTTEN RESOURCES FOR THE RURAL COLLEGE

When Lou assigned me the topic for my portion of the workshop, I felt confident I could identify many resources which could be classified as forgotten or perhaps overlooked. After receiving a tentative agenda of this program, however, I found each of the other speakers had been assigned topics which covered many of those "forgotten resources" I had planned to discuss. However, I will review with you some of the directions I have observed throughout the country that various rural colleges have been taking to utilize some of these forgotten or overlooked resources.

First, I would like to use some transparencies to illustrate what appears to have occurred in many rural areas. With the early development of the interstate or superhighway systems of transportation, a distinct change in the movement of population from the rural areas to the cities seems to have occurred. As we can see from the diagram, it would appear the reverse movement resulted from the increased activities, business and job opportunities, which developed within access to this strip of highway. There seems to have been a migration over the years of citizens from the smaller communities along the interstate towards the larger metropolitan areas directly affected.

Within the past five to ten years, we have been finding a number of the specialized industries from the larger metropolitan areas moving into the rural areas. This reverse migration, however, has been based on several factors. One of the factors we have found has been availability of raw materials; a second has been the availability of the labor market; a third has been the availability of transportation to move in raw materials or to move out the finished products; and a fourth has been the availability of educational opportunities which offer specialized programs to meet the training needs of the industry. It would appear, then, that educational opportunities available in these rural communities has been one of the primary factors in the final determination of whether or not an industry moves into the rural area of some states.

The institutions most receptive to this type of

training need have been the rural community colleges. Research has shown students remain within the proximity of the institution they attend upon completion of their program. The rural institutions can stymie unnecessary out-migration of students from the rural areas towards metropolitan areas.

It is with this background that I now move into my assigned topic. There are basically two major categories of resources we will review--those categories functioning internally within the college and those categories functioning external to the college. First, if the basic assumption is accepted that community colleges exist to serve students, then the primary resources are those related to the existing and potential student. We must reexamine the model we use in our educational programming. If students are one of the forgotten resources, then we must reexamine:

- A. Do we really have an open admission policy? Are there built in "road blocks" or qualifications that prevent some potential students from attending?
- B. One of the resources we must examine relates to the basic presentation of our educational programs. We must take a very critical look at the open-entry, open-exit concept of continuous enrollment successfully developed at several institutions throughout the country. One of the opportunities we might examine is the design of regular courses into modules which would be competency-based and would become available to students at any time. By clearly defining the objectives and the competencies for each of our programs, we are able to better utilize the resources of faculty, facilities, and equipment that may well be available in the rural community college.
- C. Are we making it possible for a part-time credit student in a regular program to be considered as valuable to the institution as the full time credit student? By making it conducive to attend, more part-time students representing the variety of situations in a rural area can have both educational and job placement opportunities made available.
- D. Students attending our institutions under many of the various federal programs, such as veterans, handicapped, special manpower need and so forth, should not be overlooked as a resource.
- E. Close articulation with other systems of postsecond-

ary education should be developed. Are students who complete programs accepted by all four year institutions? Can students from other institutions attend the institution freely to take any specialized courses?

F. Have we developed a good follow-up on non-returners? Do we have good records of placements? Our alumni groups may be one resource completely forgotten in the past.

One of the real problems in the rural community is either not having the enrollment demand or the equipment, facilities or faculty available to offer unique types of specialized types of courses to each institution. We must make the most efficient use of faculty, equipment and facilities. Several different ways in which we are able to do this include the utilization of individualized programs either in the form of correspondence courses or an individualized program learning approach. The development of a complete resource learning center in each institution would make this a possibility by making individualized packets available on specialized courses or in the normal coursework of programs.

One of the resources we neglect are members of our staff who need support and further professional development. In-service programs need to be developed to make these faculty more efficient and productive. One of the greatest resources to be developed by each of us is in the use of area faculty members from business, industry and the community at large. In each part of the country, many highly qualified individuals are available to teach regular programs on a part time basis.

Are we limiting use to our main campus facilities day and night both for credit and non-credit? One major thrust should be to take the educational opportunities to the students. The outlying communities offer an opportunity to place selected courses for easy access of students. Business and industry offer an opportunity to use specialized equipment when the need arises. Although the "well is going dry" on excess or surplus federal equipment, there is still some NIER equipment that might be secured. This resource should be investigated especially for heavy machine technology or numerically controlled equipment.

One major concern is in the area of additional revenue to support rural campuses. Many of our institutions have not thoroughly investigated the potential of foundations. Most of us are quite aware of foundations established on a nationwide basis providing grants to various institutions

for certain kinds of programs or certain kinds of research. This is, of course, an overused source of revenue for most postsecondary institutions. However, in dealing more along the lines of foundations established by each individual campus for use by the campus as the individual trustees see the need arise, this can be an excellent source of revenue for specialized types of programs or equipment otherwise difficult to obtain. Each of the institutions within Nebraska has established a foundation and it has been very beneficial to the promotion of specialized efforts by these campuses. Some of the most recent uses of the foundations have been the building of a green house at one of the campuses to support the botany courses where equipment and funds had been very difficult to obtain. Another possibility is the use of scholarship funds or financial aid to students provided by such foundations.

One of the major forgotten resources externally are the advisory committees. These advisory committees can in fact be a strong public relations arm for our institutions in the business and industrial fields. By having the advisory committee broad-based from several segments in neighboring communities and even statewide, we can broaden the interest and support for our particular college. One committee we may want to develop is "The Committee of the Future" to help plan five to ten years down the road. The committee should be selected from key prominent individuals who can look from various view points on the future needs or development of the area. This resource can be invaluable to the planning process. Most rural community colleges by use of advisory committees can have up to 75 to 100 interested individuals supporting the college. This support can be much more broad-based than the normal board of governors or some type of administrative body.

I have tried to review as many resources as possible that you might be able to use in the administration of your institutions. It is hoped that each of you will have been able to pick up one or two possible resources to further develop when you return to your institution.

Thank you.



"SOME PRACTICAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR
UTILIZING FACULTY AT THE RURAL COMMUNITY COLLEGE"

by

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SOME PRACTICAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR UTILIZING FACULTY AT THE RURAL COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Some Practical Considerations

One of the most perplexing problems facing the community college is that of establishing equitable teaching loads for its faculty. This problem is especially acute at many rural community colleges which must base teaching loads on formulas designed for larger institutions and which are expected to meet a growing number of demands with limited resources. The results are often inequities in faculty teaching loads, failure to produce according to the college's funding formula, and too much reliance on part-time faculty members. The following presentation represents one approach to this problem. No claim is made or implied that the final solution has been reached; it probably never will be. But in addressing this problem, I have failed to find a plan suited to meeting both the practical and philosophical needs of the rural community college.

It is understood that the teaching load is only a portion of a faculty workload which includes such things as committee work, office hours, student advising, and other non-teaching duties. In addition, the following assumptions are made here: (1) that the philosophy of the rural community college commits it to offering a comprehensive program to part-time as well as to full-time students; (2) that the majority of the rural community colleges are relatively small in comparison to their urban counterparts and that being small and rural presents certain problems, which, while perhaps not unique, are intensified at the rural college; and, (3) that the individual college, regardless of its funding source and other restrictions, has some flexibility in determining faculty teaching loads and assignments.

It has been well documented that devising an equitable plan for determining faculty teaching loads is difficult, if not impossible, to accomplish.¹ There are various factors to consider, such as the number of different and new preparations, the use of new technologies, individualized instruction, the types of classes taught, and a number of other considerations that might be unique to any given situation. Yet teaching loads must be determined and teaching assignments should be made in accordance with some

rational plan.

One common method used in defining a full-time teaching load is in terms of credit or contact hours, thereby placing the emphasis on the number of hours instructors meet their classes each week. Student credit enrollment does not play the major role; instead, a full teaching load is often defined as from 12 to 15 credit hours or from 15 to 20 contact hours per term. Another method used in a number of colleges places the emphasis on student credit enrollment and is largely concerned with the number of weekly student contact hours generated. Weekly student contact hours is the number of students in a class times the hours the class meets in a week. Neither of these plans speaks directly to the problems faced by the rural community colleges concerned with making maximum use of its faculty without putting undue burdens such as overloads or underloads on any segment of the college.

In larger institutions, the faculty can usually meet the student credit standards set by the institution through the use of either of the above formulas. However, in the rural community college, it is difficult to have any large number of faculty members generate weekly student contact hours approaching the 450 minimum set by some systems, such as the Los Angeles City Community Colleges and the state of Michigan.² Moreover, if the rural community college adheres strictly to a formula based on credit or contact hours, the college will have to limit its offerings to those times of the day when large sections can be generated, thus making it difficult to schedule enough classes to accommodate the time schedules of the people the college serves. Compounding the fact that classes at rural community colleges tend to be small is that oftentimes there is a scarcity of qualified part-time instructors in the college's service area. The problems associated with teaching loads are further magnified by the fact that rural community colleges are often tied to the same production criteria as are larger colleges in terms of student credit hours generated. If the credit-contact and weekly student contact formulas are inadequate for the rural community college, some other method must be used in determining teaching loads. I am suggesting that we must look to the budgeting formula and relate teaching loads directly to this formula if we in the rural community colleges are to make maximum use of our faculty and approach equitable teaching assignments for all faculty members.

Most state-supported community colleges receive their budget allocation on the basis of full-time equivalent (FTE) students enrolled or projected to enroll. FTE's are the sum of all credit hours generated by the institution in a term divided by a number (usually 12 or 15) as determined by the funding source. Once a community college receives its budget

based on FTE's, it must then allocate faculty positions based on some formula. In most cases faculty positions are allocated by the funding source in a way that directly links them to the number of FTE's generated by the college. In the Virginia Community College System, faculty members are allocated on the basis of one for each 20 FTE's in the occupational-technical and developmental areas. Yet in Virginia and in a number of other instances, when we consider an individual faculty member's teaching load, we tend to ignore the basis upon which funding is made and instead revert to one of the formulas (or some combination of the two) discussed above.

In considering "New Responses to New Problems Facing the Rural Community College," I believe we must directly link teaching loads to the established funding formulas. This is especially important as we face new problems in balancing budgets and in decreasing enrollments. This linking of the teaching load to the funding formula is especially suited to the rural college that often does not have the number of large classes needed to compensate for the disciplines which do not generate full teaching loads. If we do bring about this link, I believe we will have a realistic and workable approach for determining faculty teaching loads in the rural community college. The following approach, soon to be implemented at Mountain Empire Community College (MECC), bases faculty teaching loads on the number of FTE's generated by each faculty member.

At MECC the following parameters are used in determining teaching loads each quarter.

- a. 12 to 15 credit hours;
- b. 15 to 20 contact hours;
- c. 3 to 4 preparations; and
- d. FTE's generated (credit hours times student enrollment divided by 15.)

- (1) For faculty members who teach more than half of their courses in university-parallel or support areas, the range will be from 16 to 24 FTE's.
- (2) For faculty teaching more than half of their courses in the occupational-technical and developmental areas, the range will be from 12 to 18 FTE's.

Since there are other variables such as new preparations, the following forms will serve as examples of what a realistic teaching load might look like when FTE's generated play a key role.

Using this approach, teaching overloads are based on

FACULTY TEACHING LOAD

NAME _____

QUARTER _____

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|--------|--------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|------------------------|----------------|-----------------|---------------------------------|
| COURSE | NEW PREP. | DIFF. PREP. | LEC. HRS. | LAB. HRS. | CONT. HRS. (4+5) | CREDIT HRS. | STU. ENROLL. | STU. CREDIT HRS. (7x8) |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| TOTALS | | | | | | | | |

1. FTEs (student credit hours divided by 15)

15

2. Credit Hours

Unadjusted credit hours _____

Number of preps. in excess of 4 _____

Number of preps. less than 3 _____

New preps. _____

x

1.00 = _____

x

.50 = _____

x

.50 = _____

Total adjustments _____

Adjusted Credit Hours

3. Contact Hours
-

Contact hours in excess of 20 _____

Office hours required _____

FTE Generation: Minimum _____ Maximum _____ Actual _____

Number in excess of maximum _____

Number less than minimum _____

Overload: _____

Underload: _____

4. Special Assignment

Faculty Member Signature_____
Division Chairman Signature_____
Date

FACULTY TEACHING LOAD

NAME _____

QUARTER Fall, 1974

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|---------|--------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|------------------------|----------------|-----------------|---------------------------------|
| COURSE | NEW PREP. | DIFF. PREP. | LEC. HRS. | LAB. HRS. | CONT. HRS. (4+5) | CREDIT HRS. | STU. ENROLL. | STU. CREDIT HRS. (7x8) |
| AIRC 12 | | 1 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 22 | 66 |
| AIRC 31 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 22 | 44 |
| AIRC 54 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 22 | 66 |
| AIRC 99 | | 1 | 2 | 4 | 6 | 3 | 22 | 66 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| TOTALS | 2 | 4 | 8 | 10 | 18 | 11 | 88 | 242 |

1. FTEs (student credit hours divided by 15)

16.1
15 | 242

16

2. Credit Hours

| | | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------|---|-----------------|
| Unadjusted credit hours | <u>11</u> | | |
| Number of preps. in excess of 4 | <u>0</u> | x | 1.00 = <u>0</u> |
| Number of preps. less than 3 | <u>0</u> | x | .50 = <u>0</u> |
| New preps. | <u>2</u> | x | .50 = <u>1</u> |
| Total adjustments | | | <u>1</u> |
| Adjusted Credit Hours | <u>12</u> | | |

3. Contact Hours

18

Contact hours in excess of 20 0
Office hours required 10

FTE Generation: Minimum 12 Maximum 18 Actual 16
Number in excess of maximum 0 Number less than minimum 0
Overload: 0 Underload: 0

4. Special Assignment

Faculty Member Signature _____

Division Chairman Signature _____

Date _____

FACULTY TEACHING LOAD

NAME _____

QUARTER Fall, 1974

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|----------|--------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|------------------------|----------------|-------------------|---------------------------------|
| COURSE | NEW PREP. | DIFF. PREP. | LEC. HRS. | LAB. HRS. | CONT. HRS. (4+5) | CREDIT HRS. | STU. . ENROLL. | STU. CREDIT HRS. (7x8) |
| HIST 101 | | 1 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 15 | 45 |
| HIST 101 | | | 3 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 30 | 90 |
| HIST 111 | | 1 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 25 | 75 |
| HIST 111 | | | 3 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 26 | 78 |
| SOSC 100 | | 1 | 4 | 0 | 4 | 4 | 30 | 120 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| TOTALS | 0 | 3 | 16 | 0 | 16 | 16 | 126 | 408 |

1. FTEs (student credit hours divided by 15)

$$\frac{27.2}{15} \overline{) 408}$$

27

2. Credit Hours

| | | | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------|---|--------|----------|
| Unadjusted credit hours | <u>16</u> | | | |
| Number of preps. in excess of 4 | <u>0</u> | x | 1.00 = | <u>0</u> |
| Number of preps. less than 3 | <u>0</u> | x | .50 = | <u>0</u> |
| New preps. | <u>0</u> | x | .50 = | <u>0</u> |
| Total adjustments | | | | <u>0</u> |
| Adjusted Credit Hours | <u>16</u> | | | |

3. Contact Hours

16

| | |
|-------------------------------|-----------|
| Contact hours in excess of 20 | <u>0</u> |
| Office hours required | <u>10</u> |

FTE Generation: Minimum 16 Maximum 24 Actual 27
 Number in excess of maximum 3 Number less than minimum 0
 Overload: 3 FTEs Underload: 0

4. Special Assignment

Faculty Member Signature

Division Chairman Signature

Date

FACULTY TEACHING LOAD

NAME _____

QUARTER Fall, 1974

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|----------|--------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|------------------------|----------------|-----------------|---------------------------------|
| COURSE | NEW PREP. | DIFF. PREP. | LEC. HRS. | LAB. HRS. | CONT. HRS. (4+5) | CREDIT HRS. | STU. ENROLL. | STU. CREDIT HRS. (7x8) |
| ARTS 111 | | 1 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 21 | 63 |
| CRFT 121 | | 1 | 2 | 8 | 10 | 5 | 9 | 45 |
| CRFT 225 | | 1 | 3 | 9 | 12 | 7 | 4 | 28 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| TOTALS | 0 | 3 | 8 | 17 | 25 | 15 | 34 | 136 |

1. FTEs (student credit hours divided by 15)

9.1
15 | 136

.9

2. Credit Hours

| | | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------|---|-----------------|
| Unadjusted credit hours | <u>15</u> | | |
| Number of preps. in excess of 4 | <u>0</u> | x | 1.00 = <u>0</u> |
| Number of preps. less than 3 | <u>0</u> | x | .50 = <u>0</u> |
| New preps. | <u>0</u> | x | .50 = <u>0</u> |
| Total adjustments | | | <u>0</u> |
| Adjusted Credit Hours | <u>15</u> | | |

3. Contact Hours

25

Contact hours in excess of 20 5
Office hours required 5

FTE Generation: Minimum 12 Maximum 18 Actual 9
Number in excess of maximum 0 Number less than minimum 3
Overload: 0 Underload: 3

4. Special Assignment

Teach a 2 - credit hour ceramics course in evening.

Faculty Member Signature _____

Division Chairman Signature _____

Date _____

FACULTY TEACHING LOAD

NAME _____

QUARTER Fall, 1974

| 1 COURSE | 2 NEW PREP. | 3 DIFF. PREP. | 4 LEC. HRS. | 5 LAB. HRS. | 6 CONT. HRS. (4+5) | 7 CREDIT HRS. | 8 STU. ENROLL. | 9 STU. CREDIT HRS. (7x8) |
|-------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------------|
| ECON 160 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 17 | 51 |
| GOVT 180 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 15 | 45 |
| GOVT 281 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 12 | 36 |
| SOCI 101 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 16 | 48 |
| SOCI 201 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 15 | 45 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| TOTALS | 5 | 5 | 15 | 0 | 15 | 15 | 75 | 225 |

1. FTEs (student credit hours divided by 15)

$$\frac{15}{15 \overline{) 225}}$$

15

2. Credit Hours

| | | | |
|---------------------------------|------|---|-----------|
| Unadjusted credit hours | 15 | | |
| Number of preps. in excess of 4 | 1 | x | 1.00 = 1 |
| Number of preps. less than 3 | 0 | x | .50 = 0 |
| New preps. | 5 | x | .50 = 2.5 |
| Total adjustments | | | 3.5 |
| Adjusted Credit Hours | 18.5 | | |

3. Contact Hours

15

| | |
|-------------------------------|----|
| Contact hours in excess of 20 | 0 |
| Office hours required | 10 |

FTE Generation: Minimum 16 Maximum 24 Actual 15Number in excess of maximum 0 Number less than minimum 1Overload: 0Underload: 0

4. Special Assignment

No special assignment due to excessive adjusted credit hours.

Faculty Member Signature_____
Division Chairman Signature_____
Date

the number of FTE's generated in excess of the established maximum. Faculty members in university-parallel and support areas will be authorized overload pay if the total FTE's for the academic year exceed 72; those in the occupational-technical and developmental areas will be paid an overload if the total FTE's generated exceed 54. This is in contrast to the present plan of basing overload payments on credit hours in excess of 45. The amount of overload pay will be determined by the number of FTE's generated in excess of the maximum. Overload pay at MECC is based on part-time faculty rates. Computations are made on a proportional basis relating an individual's full-time pay scale to the college's part-time pay scale. For example, if a faculty member's current pay is 80% of the maximum for the rank, 80% of the maximum of the part-time scale for the rank is paid for teaching overloads.

Teaching underloads exist when faculty members generate less than the minimum number of FTE's for which they are funded. In such cases, the faculty members will be given an equitable share of the college's workload through additional assignments (for example, another course or equivalent activity in the current or a later quarter) as determined by the Division Chairman and approved by the Dean of Instruction.

Some advantages of this approach are as follows:

--It is more realistic, since teaching loads are linked directly to the funding base of the college.

--Flexibility is provided, thereby recognizing that some faculty members will not generate the FTE's for which they are funded whereas others will exceed the funding basis. This permits a college-wide FTE generation that meets the budget requirements of the college.

--Each quarter the individual faculty member and administration can readily see the number of FTE's generated by the instructor. A clear picture is presented of programs and courses. This, of course, can be accomplished in other ways such as using a computer. However, this method is convenient and each faculty member is aware of his relationship to the funding base without having to convert credit hours or weekly student hours to FTE generation.

--This approach provides for more effective planning since additional assignments can be made if it is determined that an underload exists. If a pattern of low production emerges, it can then be determined whether a course or curriculum should be continued.

--Psychologically, relating FTE generation to the college

budget, should be an incentive for faculty members to see that their program or courses are productive.

--When an overload occurs, the instructors will have an opportunity to earn additional pay for their extra work. This can affect faculty members in the social sciences, humanities, and business areas, who, in many cases "carry" other areas of the college without being compensated for the additional work.

--Finally, and this brings me to the next part of my presentation, by letting each faculty member know that he is expected to carry his share of the teaching load, the faculty member will better understand the need to teach courses during the day and evening hours, thereby, integrating the total faculty with the total instructional program.

Some Philosophical Considerations

or One College, One Faculty

If the foregoing approach is to be successful in determining faculty teaching loads, some adjustments will have to be made in scheduling full-time faculty. If full-time faculty members teach most of their classes during the day and leave the teaching of evening courses to part-time faculty, it will be practically impossible for the majority of the faculty to generate the minimum number of FTE's at rural community colleges. Many rural community colleges pay lip service to offering the same "quality" instruction in their evening programs as they do in the day, whereas, in reality, much of this instruction is often done by persons who would not be employed by the college on a full-time basis. This does not mean we do not have some outstanding part-time faculty members at most of our colleges, for we do. It does mean that we have failed to involve fully the regular teaching faculty in the total instructional program of the college. The results are that we tend to have two faculties -- the regular faculty and the continuing education faculty -- rather than one faculty which is involved in the college's total instructional program. If the movement toward community-based education continues to gain momentum, it becomes even more important that the regular faculty become involved in community-based instruction, for without this vital linkage no community college can become truly community based.³

The continuing education division has not, in most cases, and especially in the smaller rural community colleges, gained equal status with the traditional instructional program or with student services. A continuation of this seems unrealistic since more and more of our students are part-time students

who are often served by the college's continuing education division. An important question, and one that we need to answer, is why continuing education has not achieved a major role in many community colleges. There appear to be two basic reasons why continuing education has never achieved its full potential. First, continuing education has never received adequate financing from many state legislatures or from the individual college itself; secondly, continuing education has never been brought into the mainstream of the college's instructional program, but instead lingers on the periphery and consequently is unable to satisfactorily link the educational process of the institution to the entire community.

In many colleges, the line between the regular instructional program and continuing education is too harshly drawn. It is not usual to find a department of continuing education with its own faculty which rarely, if ever, draws upon the resources of the entire faculty. On the other hand, faculty members who teach in the regular curriculum programs often feel little or no obligation to teach courses in the college's continuing education program. This gap can be bridged both philosophically and economically if a portion of all faculty members' time is devoted to the continuing education program. Assuming a faculty member's teaching load is fifteen credit hours, would it not be feasible to allocate a portion of this time to continuing education? I believe that it would indeed. This can be accomplished in the following manner.

As a part of their assignment, all faculty members would automatically have 20% of their time assigned to the division of continuing education. For example, if a faculty member is assigned fifteen credit hours, one three-credit hour course or its equivalent would be allocated to continuing education. This 20% commitment on the part of each faculty member might vary from college to college; however, this commitment would insure that the Dean of Continuing Education would no longer have to go with "hat in hand" to the instructional division to see if anyone happened to be available to teach a course in community services. Instead, the continuing education division would be responsible for assigning one-fifth of the instructor's teaching load and the instructional division would assign four-fifths. On the financial side, all faculty members would be more apt to generate their required FTE's. This by no means implies doing away with part-time faculty; however, it would reduce a college's reliance on them.

Ideally this situation should present the college with an opportunity to link part-time faculty members more strongly with the philosophy of the college and full-time faculty more closely with the community. How can this be done? Often the part-time faculty member teaches in the outreach program or

in the evening program on campus. In effect, this means that part-time students are constantly exposed to part-time faculty members and that part-time faculty members rarely teach students in full-time curriculums. The results often are that part-time students rarely receive instruction from the regular faculty members who are familiar with the goals and objectives of the college. On the other hand, full-time students rarely receive instruction from the banker, the attorney, and others who are not full-time faculty members. Furthermore, as referred to earlier, since there is often a scarcity of part-time instructors in rural areas, the college can perhaps persuade community-minded professional people to teach a course during their regular workday, whereas they often find night teaching less desirable. The roles should be interchangeable: full-time faculty members should be teaching in the outreach programs and in the evening program and the part-time faculty member should be teaching students from the regular curriculums. I see several advantages resulting from this approach.

- the part-time faculty members are now teaching a "regular" course. Consequently, they will be using the course of study, goals, and objectives established for the course by the college. While this in no way negates the value of bringing new views, new methods, and a new personality into the college community, it will insure that the part-time faculty member is more closely aligned with the college and its objectives.

- the full-time student is exposed to the banker, attorney, or someone else who in his mind is not associated with the college. The views of the "outsider" should be valuable to the students who normally hear only the views of the regular faculty.

- an excellent way of getting to know the community is through teaching its adult members. This is accomplished when regular faculty members devote a portion of their energies to the evening student.

- the regular faculty members, through teaching them, will become increasingly aware of the value of the contributions (both in regard to funding and educational) of the part-time student.

- regular faculty members, through dealing with a group of students made up of people other than the recent high school graduate, are encountering that segment of society which may well constitute the major source of community college students in the future.

My presentation has dealt with some highly sensitive

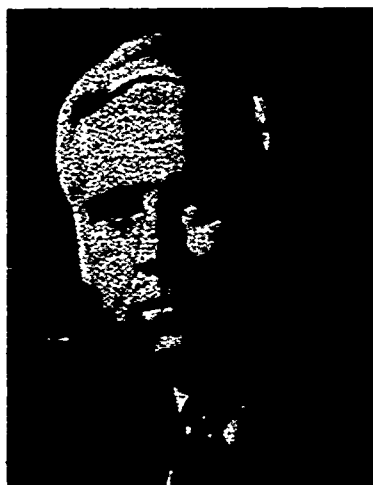
areas in the operation of a rural community college; however, if we are to indeed provide "New Responses to New Problems . . .," we must deal with both the practical and philosophical aspects of faculty teaching loads.

Footnotes

¹For a discussion of some of the approaches and problems related to faculty workloads see John Lombardi, Faculty Workload, Topical Paper Number 46, ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges, October, 1974.

²Ibid., pp. 2, 4, 11.

³For a more detailed discussion of involving the full-time faculty in community services see George B. Vaughan, "A President's Formula: Involving the Entire Faculty in Community Services," Community College Review (March, 1975) pp. 48-52. Parts of the remainder of this presentation are taken from this article.



"STATE RESOURCES"

by

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The University of Florida

Gainesville, Florida

EXTENDING FUNDING BASES FOR THE RURAL COLLEGES:
STATE RESOURCES

The major problems of financing rural community college programs from the state point of view may be summarized as focused upon five major concerns:

1. One concern is the higher costs per student which result from small size. Some costs are constant, e.g., basic administration, basic campus operational costs, basic teaching resources. It is obvious that these costs, when allocated on a per student basis, result in more funds required for each of 500 students than similar allocation for each of 5,000 students. It is also obvious that a smaller college will generally have smaller classes, especially in programs which are not part of the basic general education offerings. Therefore, a faculty member whose salary is a constant will cost twice as much per student during a classroom contact hour for 10 students as he would for 20 students.

Many colleges have become aware of the greater cost efficiency they could achieve for their instructional costs by merely raising the student-teacher ratio upwards by two or three students. It simply is not possible to accomplish this cost efficiency in small institutions. The obligation for educational opportunity remains the same, however, whether the institution enrolls 10,000 or 1,000 students. Size, then, is a major concern.

2. A second concern is the gap between philosophy and action. We have heard the community college objectives, goals, purposes -- defined upon many occasions. We "know" what the institutional obligations are! However, only a very few states provide financial support for community colleges in a manner which encourages or even permits implementation of that philosophy. Funds are provided in most states by some type of allocation formula which is based upon a full time equivalent student. FTE's are usually based upon a credit hour enrollment total -- often divided by 15 or 30 or 12 or 24 depending upon the historical development in a given state. It is difficult to measure the job of a community college

solely in terms of credit hours, unless you forget this institution's basic commitment as well as its philosophical heritage. The gap between what the role assignment may be and what the allocation of resources actually is just seems too great a distance in almost every state.

3. Another concern which cannot be easily overcome is the increasing trend toward state domination in financing and decision making. The limited tax resources at the local level has caused continued and increasing dependence upon state allocations. In most states (with one or two notable exceptions), this increasing dependence upon the state has resulted in more and more outright control from state bureaucracy. Required state level curriculum approvals, and bureaucratically established state enforced limitations, result in state inhibitions placed upon institutional actions. These have been the directions of state controls more often than otherwise. When local financing was a part of the support pattern, a community could decide to carry on a course or a program which was deemed to be desirable by local people through local taxation. When major or total support comes from the state, there is no local backlog upon which to depend. The result is often to make some activities "self sustaining" -- or, in other words, supported by a "use tax" on the student called tuition.

In similar fashion, state legislatures may take active control over institutional policy by providing or withholding appropriations. In this instance, state control is direct and effective.

One result of this action which affects the rural colleges, in particular, is the attempt to make all colleges alike. This fitting of institutions into a preconceived mold operates very unfavorably upon the small rural college. It forces personnel into carrying out jobs for which they may not be well prepared; it places emphasis upon programs and curricula which may not appropriately fit the situation in every instance; and it provides no resources for programs or activities which are needed in one locality but not in another.

4. A fourth concern is the inability to carry out activities which do not achieve an economy of scale. Institutional research is the major basis for long range planning and short range planning as well. It is most difficult for most rural colleges to employ an institutional research officer.

Financial aids have become a complicated business. Can one small college afford a top level financial aid expert? One could name more than a dozen specializations which can only be classified as part time in the small rural college -- thereby becoming financially unfeasible and hence more often than not neglected.

5. A fifth and obvious concern is one of quality. It is admittedly much more difficult to obtain a truly high quality program on the funds provided for colleges with double the enrollments of the small rural college. Therefore, the state funding often causes a situation with less quality for those who live in nonurban areas. There is nothing fair about this. In fact, the availability of the college itself may be precarious in rural areas.

In summary, the five major concerns which motivate decisions relating to financing community colleges from the point of view of the state are:

1. The higher costs resulting from small class size.
2. The gap between the philosophy and its implementation.
3. The tendency toward state bureaucratic and legislative domination.
4. The limitations upon needed college responsibilities for certain special activities.
5. The boundaries of quality development.

There is no universal answer to these. We need to share our experiences with others.



"FEDERAL RESOURCES"

by

Dr. Bonny Franke

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South Carolina State Board for
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Columbia, South Carolina**

EXTENDING FUNDING BASES FOR RURAL COLLEGES: FEDERAL RESOURCES

The federal mystique which is often associated with larger institutions' abilities to tap federal resources is often somewhat overwhelming to the smaller institution whose administrators, faculty, and staff carry a much larger proportion of the responsibility for the total institution's on-going efforts.

It is important to realize, however, that the smaller institution, the rural institution, is often only a microcosm of the larger urban institution. As such, the similarities (and differences) are not necessarily mandatory to the success of the institution's involvement with federal agencies and their fund disbursements.

If you are operating within this microcosm (if that is an appropriate analogy), you have many strengths upon which to draw. Recognizing that all generalities are false, let's deal in generalities for a moment and identify some of your particular strengths as a smaller rural institution. First, you are a close integral part of your community with a recognized leadership role. Secondly, you have great potential as a cultural enrichment center within your community. Third, you have an opportunity to directly serve your area as an initiator/facilitator of economic development.

There are, of course, other strengths -- a long list of them -- but how do you relate these to additional funds for your institution and then translate those strengths into a formula for action?

You have probably identified, at one time or the other, those activities which you consider to be first and foremost needs. Being an integral part of your larger community, the probability is that you have also identified needs that you could meet for the community per se.

The sources of funds that are available to you to assist in meeting your needs is long and varied. Identified needs, then, are the first part of a formula for action. I will provide a list of potential sources; however, at this point, suffice it to say that the second part of the formula would be needs flowing into sources. The third part is an obvious one, and that is the matching of the needs with the potential sources. Once you have been able to do this, then you can

proceed towards action. You can proceed with conceptualizing ideas which have the meeting of your basic needs as their trust. Following the identification of ideas, it is up to you to make contacts in order to get input into the validity and the workability of any one idea.

The next step (and one which is frequently overlooked) is the explanation of the idea or plan to your community leaders in order to solicit their support.

When I suggest broad sharing discussion and the request for input into a project or plan of action, it always reminds me of a story about a school superintendent In working with a new principal, the superintendent gave the principal some advice. It seemed that the principal's hardest task was to present a request for funds to the school board and to appear before the community funding hierarchy with new program requests. The school superintendent advised him that before he sent anything to anybody, he ought to pay a visit to the school janitor and let him hear the plan and respond to it. The superintendent's point was that the janitor, who had lived his entire life in the town, had a far more sensitive finger on the pulse of public opinion than did either principal or the superintendent himself. And, the superintendent added, the only time that the janitor had ever given him bad advice was when the man's desire for a new furnace outweighed his knowledge about the townspeople's attitude about an increase in spending.

The story makes two points. The first one is that too many good ideas have been defeated because the sponsors did not take the time to explain their plans and to get the support of the community leaders. The second point is that the initiator of a plan always must weigh opinions of others against his own perception of the situation.

If the request for funding does not "fly", it may mean that the initiator has simply not done an adequate job of describing the importance of the need, that the program itself does not really answer that need, and/or, that the initiator has not talked to the right people.

The key factor in any formula for action related to federal grantsmanship or the receipt of federal funds is communication and coordination. The federal legislative base for the majority of the funded programs have a state level and, in many instances, a local regional planning level that must be contacted in order to secure federal support for individual projects.

But where do you start in examining appropriate legislative bases? Most of you are very familiar with a wide variety of federal programs which have impacted on your

institutions. If they were categorized in a simple listing, the chances are you will have had contact with several of them. For today's purposes, however, let me review my list with you, with the possibility that you have not considered several sources which may hold potential for your institution. These include:

- (1) The Department of Agriculture
- (2) The Department of Commerce
- (3) The Department of Defense
- (4) The Department of Health, Education and Welfare
- (5) The Department of Housing and Urban Development
(Note: Community development projects may be financed under new federal revenue sharing legislation. The main exception is that no construction of college facilities are allowable).

As enacted January 1, 1975, the Housing and Community Development Act replaces a number of older programs including Urban Renewal, Model Cities, Water and Sewer Facilities, Open Space Land and Rehabilitation and Public Facilities loans.

The local regional planning districts and the local government units are involved. However, proposals are being entertained by the following from two-year colleges for services offered:

- (6) The Department of the Interior
- (7) The Department of Justice
- (8) The Department of Labor
- (9) The Department of Transportation
- (10) The Appalachian Regional Commission
- (11) The National Science Foundation
- (12) The Office of Economic Opportunity
- (13) The Water Resources Council
- (14) The Environmental Protection Agency

In order to discriminate effectively between several available sources of funds, it is helpful to have a series of questions or basic procedures which will serve as a basis of decision-making and that will, if nothing else, provide a process of elimination. The following series of procedures or questions should provide an indication as to whether or not the particular funding source being approached is the best potential supporter of educational needs:

1. Study the legal base. Initial questions usually are answered by a study of the actual law which mandates the availability of the funds. Copies may be obtained from local congressional representatives' offices in the case of governmental funds. Foundations and other private sources have similar legal or corporational guides which control their fund releases.

2. Guidelines. Study the published guidelines which are available at no cost from the individual governmental agencies and address the limitations, data/research requirements, the format of the actual writing, etc. A description of the intent of the law is ordinarily provided as are any restrictions, requirements for qualifications, limitations of funds, personnel and/or activities. Federal, regional and/or state program officers may be indicated for advisory purposes.
3. Determine the total funds available. In the case of governmental funds, it is important to distinguish between the amount legislated and the amount appropriated. If the total funds available to a particular agency are limited, this will usually determine the size of the average grant. It is also helpful to know the percentage of awards in relation to the number of requests made to the agency in order to judge the competition factor.
4. How are funds allocated? Answers to the following questions are important: Are they formula or discretionary grants? Are they awarded through a state agency or directly to the institution from a federal agency? Is there regional or state office control? Does a state educational agency have "sign-off" responsibilities?
5. What is the usual funding time period? Determine whether the usual length of time is for one year, three years, or five years.
6. Requirements for matching funds. The level of federal or governmental support may impose restrictions on the institution and may create more financial problems than the grant will offset. Some federal grants require as much as fifty percent matching funds from local or state sources. Others have no matching requirements. If there is a matching requirement is it actual outlay, or is it in kind, and so forth?
7. Size of the average award. If the typical grant is \$10,000 and the project under consideration is calculated at \$100,000, it is obvious that a different source of support should be sought.
8. Grant awardees. Most of the federal agencies and many of the private foundations publish a listing of the current year's grant recipients. It is advisable to study the characteristics of the institutions and the titles of their funded projects as

an aid in determining the appropriateness of the project and individual institution's competitive possibilities. The agency priorities are often reflected rather clearly in the descriptions of the typical grant and its recipient.

9. Deadlines. The final date for proposal or application submission should be checked early. The actual writing of the project description may only take a few days of concentrated effort, but planning, information collection, and the totality of the decision-making inherent within the proposal development may require many months.
10. Budget and allocation of funds. Since budgeting is a prime consideration, it is important to know when and how much of the total grant will be available to the grantee. Delays in receipt of funding, are not unheard of, and if this possibility is anticipated and the length of delay is included in the planning, large initial costs to the institution may be avoided. Consider the federal agencies' budgeting procedures. Accounting procedures are often complex or inflexible to the point that an extremely large project may be unwieldy in the demands it places on the institution's business office.
11. Continuation of programs. One of the initial considerations should be feasibility of underwriting the program after a funding announcement has been received and contractual agreements fulfilled. The institution must evaluate its ability to provide funds from other sources to support the continuance of the program or see its way clear to assume the continued support, assuming the nature of the project is such that it is to be an on-going effort.
12. Interrelated sources. Dependent upon the nature of the project under consideration, it may be feasible to solicit and receive support from multiple sources simultaneously. This approach has several inherent problems. If, for example, the total request involves separate but interrelated proposals from multiple sources, there will be a difference in deadlines, in the application procedures and the award dates. The success of the project may be in jeopardy if it is dependent on funds from three sources, for example, and only two (or one) of the agencies review the proposal favorably and award the funds.
13. Contract the funding agency program officers. This

may be the single most effective means of determining whether or not the project idea is compatible with any one particular source of support. While they will not be able to assure actual funding, they are usually willing to provide technical assistance and give indications of funding priorities if approached well in advance of deadlines.



"ALTERNATIVE SOURCES"

by

Dr. Louis W. Bender

Director and Professor of Higher Education

The Florida State University

Tallahassee, Florida

EXTENDING FUNDING BASES FOR RURAL COLLEGES:
ALTERNATIVE SOURCES

Now that Bonny Franke and Jim Wattenbarger have given us a picture of sources of funds from state and federal levels, we can see the "good news" and "bad news" aspects of depending upon public funds for the support of rural community colleges over the next five or ten years. Before I present my ideas on a most underdeveloped and seldom understood source of support for your institution, let me review what I will not be telling you.

Let me see a show of hands from those of you who have established a foundation at your institution where funds from interested citizens and organizations within your service area can provide student financial aid or support special programs or even purchase capital equipment....

Very good! I see, from your response, that quite a few institutions have already taken advantage of this alternative and therefore there is no reason for me to spend time outlining it. For those of you who have not yet explored the use of creating a foundation for your institution, take advantage of others in attendance who have already done so. Learn more about the strengths and obstacles to such an approach during informal discussions at the coffee break or during the discussion sessions.

How many of you have begun deliberate campaigns to attract private gifts for the college, either through subtle indirect discussion with community influentials or through deliberately planned campaigns?....

Very good! Obviously, a number of your institutions have recognized the importance of a community-based institution being viewed as an appropriate receptacle for donations and gifts. A number of institutions have been able to construct badly needed facilities through such efforts because the public has come to accept the fact that community colleges cannot develop totally and at the desired rate when they are totally dependent upon state and federal funds.

How many of you have begun to contract for services or programs with a profit reflected in the administrative overhead? For example, how many of you with computers have seen fit to contract with small companies or businesses to

provide computer services? Or, how many of you have developed a special training program for an industry or business with an administrative overhead factor figured in to produce some support for your institution?....

Excellent! This is a growing alternative to broadening the service base of the rural community college. It is an area which many urban community colleges have been using for several years, but appropriately developed, it can be most beneficial to the rural community college as well.

Now, how many of you have been merchandising--that is, how many of you have looked for the profits from vending machines or established sales of student-produced products or have rented a facility when appropriate and thus generated additional funds?

Fine! I see from the show of hands that several of you have used this technique. I'm sure many of you presidents have found the merchandising alternative very important to your ability to entertain visiting dignitaries or provide a reserve fund to advance the image of the institution.

Now finally, let me ask, how many of you have been "beating the system?" You know what I mean, for most institutions have to examine the formula-funding approaches and the provisions restricting reimbursement to credit hours when many educational programs and services of non-credit variety could appropriately be described as credit-equivalent. How many of you have examined the alternative for broadening the services of your institution through "beating the system?"

Well, it's obvious from this response that rural community college leadership is very aware of the variety of alternatives that must be used in making an institution responsive to serve its community. Because many of you have been using one or more of these alternatives, I'm not going to tell you about them nor take any time to discuss them further. I would urge you to introduce any of them as a topic of discussion during the work sessions for those of you who individually might be interested in learning more about them.

My discussion this afternoon will be focused upon a missing link in the institutional resource system which I would describe as "voluntarism." College and university officials concerned with institutional resources have little difficulty in finding literature dealing with systems approaches for better institutional management. Admonitions that better resource allocation and utilization is the only hope for colleges and universities can be found in nearly every issue of professional journals. The array of problems

confronting higher education ranges from the avalanche-like descent of the status of higher education in the eyes of the public and in the priorities of the legislator to the pressures of inflation and declining purchasing power. Educational planners and forecasters predict a decline in the most important indicator of teacher economic support when relating birth rates and resultant numbers of high school graduates in classes which have not yet entered the kindergarten or first grades. The inflation rate contrasted with appropriations patterns has led the Carnegie Commission to caution college and university officials to use greater imaginative ways to meet the future needs for financial resources. In 1971, the Academy for Educational Development, Inc. surveyed practices being used to meet the financial crisis confronting institutions throughout the country. The Academy developed a report entitled 319 WAYS COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES ARE MEETING THE FINANCIAL PINCH. Retrenchment of personnel, reduction of programs and services, maintenance and operation economies, elimination of athletic programs or extra curricular activities were among the schemes being used. Not one of the 319 approaches, however, utilized the volunteer as a means of maximizing resources.¹ Indeed, the literature of higher education is silent on the potential of voluntarism as part of institutional resources. The Carnegie Commission Study used the term voluntary but in an entirely different context when it called for "... conditions that (a) draw forth a maximum of voluntary effort at a high level of competence and (b) achieve effective use of resources."²

Voluntarism Defined: The popularity of volunteer work throughout the nation was highlighted by a September 1974 article in the U.S. NEWS AND WORLD REPORT entitled: "Helping People--An American Custom on the Rise." That article observed that volunteers have been one of the hallmarks of the democratic society in which we live. Whether neighbors responding to a barn-raising event, or men and women serving as scout leaders, or young people responding to military requirements of a national defense emergency, the spirit of the volunteer to serve a need or cause has not died as some have lamented. The magazine article documented a rise in the number and scope of voluntary actions during recent years.

While higher education has not examined the volunteer as a phenomenon worthy of study, social scientists have examined the implications of citizen participation and action. Thelen notes, "When citizens get together and share ideas and feelings, they tend to shake off their apathy and become ready for work. When they deal with problems they feel strongly about, they improve the community and learn what it means to be citizens. The whole political and friendship climate changes."³ This concept's fundamental to community colleges--particularly rural ones! The literature

suggests successful utilization of the volunteer must be related to a systematic approach whereby the organization is able to synchronize its needs with the talents and commitment of the volunteer. Voluntarism denotes a system of doing something by or relying upon voluntary action.

Institutional Practices: In spite of the absence of any theory or system for use of volunteers in higher education, numerous examples of volunteer action can be noted. Members of the boards of trustees or advisory committees for the college or university are volunteers who give of their time and talent by choice or consent. All too frequently, however, their true potential is under utilized. Administrators and faculty often reminisce on the dynamic response and contribution of a citizen committee or board during the early years of establishment of the community college or of a new educational program but unquisitively conclude interest and effort wane after the enterprise had become operational as a natural phenomenon. Usually, however, such apathy can be traced directly to the shift in the posture of administrators or faculty who inadvertently or deliberately cease to view the citizen group as an integral part and indispensable ingredient to the enterprise. Once initiated, the need for the volunteer seems to disappear with subsequent meetings called as a perfunctory obligation or "show and tell" exercise, resulting in diminishing interest and other symptoms of detachment from the cause.

Some community colleges have similarly activated alumni groups to mount a fund raising campaign or other needed drive for the institution only to have the zeal and effort wane and deteriorate. Too frequently, however, such alumni groups have been exploited or manipulated on an ad hoc basis rather than made to feel part of the enterprise. Use of voluntary contributions and action as part of beautification projects and additions to facilities or grounds have found local artisans giving of their time and talents even when no direct institutional affiliation existed. Again, however, short-sightedness or abuses have led to disillusionment and haphazard support.

Requirements of Voluntarism: In order to have a successful program of volunteer action, there must be a systematic plan which provides appropriate leadership, training, support, and evaluation of volunteer action. Whether the volunteer is an individual or a community group, it must have a cause. Volunteering is an act of giving, a need to satisfy some of the higher level needs of the Maslow hierarchy. Rural community colleges, therefore, must understand the requirement of clearly enunciating the facets of institutional life which can be served through the giving of the volunteer.

Haphazard voluntarism is the consequence of a piecemeal or uncoordinated approach. Once a cause is identified, an institution must conceive of a recruitment program in order to identify the most appropriate volunteer resources and to assure that "felt" mutual commitments can be achieved. Voluntarism must be based upon willingness to work, not an ideological cause which could generate differences and conflict. Recruitment is not enough, however, since many volunteers still need the support of a training effort by the institution. Many are willing to give but feel inadequate to make an appropriate contribution because they have not had the experience. A task as mundane as volunteering to collect tickets as a gatekeeper at an athletic event can be viewed as encompassing obstacles by a willing and competent, but inexperienced, citizen. Nevertheless, such an individual, appropriately trained, not only can perform the function, but also can identify as a direct supporter of the institution.

Any systematic plan of voluntarism must consider the fact that participation depends upon some form of reward. Recognition is sufficient reward for many, while others may find the symbology of a uniform or a certificate or the status of a banquet or listing in a program as the type of gratification needed for identity and satisfaction. A systematic plan must also provide for quality control and evaluation. If the institution has outlined the priority of its needs and requirements, it will have a base line for analysis and evaluation.

Needed Institutional Approaches: I believe each of you can be instrumental in bringing your college to approach voluntarism as a viable component of their resource base. The first requirement would be the establishment of a college-wide committee or council on volunteer action. This council would serve as a steering committee and clearinghouse to be sure all areas of the institution are considered when designing strategies for volunteer action. The clearinghouse function of the council would eliminate needless duplication and serve as a means of evaluating the qualitative contribution of volunteers, whether individuals or groups.

The initial step in launching a systematic program would be an assessment of existing voluntary activities taking place in the institution. This is not all that complicated or difficult. Many faculty regularly use volunteers as counselors or advisors on career opportunities or as placement resource personnel. Many libraries have used volunteers in processing, cataloging or manning operations of the library. Use of volunteers for special events, extra curricular activities, and community services is also found in many institutions but seldom has an institution-wide inventory been undertaken. For such assessment, the council can then assess the opportunities

or requirements for volunteer action identified by faculty and staff. Prior to this phase, however, it would be beneficial to have a public meeting when discussion could deal with the goals of voluntarism and assure all professional staff that the use of volunteers would not be to supplant existing positions or eliminate opportunities for student assistance. Volunteers would be utilized to expand the services and programs of the institution instead. The challenge before faculty and staff would be to be imaginative and innovative in identifying avenues for volunteer action to enrich the institution and its offerings.

You each are sensitive to the fact that some faculty and staff will be threatened by such a program unless precautions are taken to make them aware that their self-interests are safe. But some of the insecurity will be beneficial by forcing a few to "get chopping!". The third step or phase involves the identification of volunteer resources available to the college. A recruitment, screening, and training strategy and program would be necessary. In order to assure systematic design and utilization, the identification of a single person to coordinate and direct the voluntarism program would be necessary. Whether a faculty member or administrator released for a portion of time initially or employed on a full time basis, the director would have ultimate responsibility for carrying out the provisions of the institution's plan.

The final step would relate to evaluation and subsequent feedback to the institution. Benefits to the volunteer are as necessary as benefits to the rural community college. Nevertheless, it is essential that the quality of volunteers be maintained at the highest possible level.

Summary:—Of the 319 ways identified by the Academy for Educational Development to extend institutional resources, voluntarism was not mentioned once. Rural community colleges which approach volunteer action as a component of the total resource system of the institution can anticipate not only valuable benefits derived by contributed services but can also expect a synergistic identification by the volunteers who become an extension of and advocate for the institution. The broader and more meaningful the volunteer action program of the community college, the greater the potential for continued support and allegiance.

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"TECHNIQUES FOR FOSTERING CHANGE"

by

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TECHNIQUES FOR FOSTERING CHANGE
THE RURAL TWO-YEAR COLLEGE

Thomas Kuhn once wrote: "What a man sees depends upon what he looks at and also upon what his previous visual conceptual experience has taught him to see."¹ In order to understand the nature of the topic and potential techniques for bringing about change, one must have a clear perception of modern rural America.

The variety of images held by individuals is exemplified by the following three descriptions of rural life:

1. The setting is a small, poor dairy farm located about twelve miles from Johnson's Corners, population 800, and 34 miles from Danville, the county seat with a population of 4,287. The farm, which is somewhat run down, was inherited from Grandfather Adam Shaw. Mr. Shaw cultivates about 75 acres of his 95-acre farm. He grows corn and oats and about one third of his productive land is rotated with hay. There are twenty milk cows, twenty-five pigs, a dog, and several cats. The farm is equipped with worn and outdated machinery, a 1957 pickup truck and a 1961 sedan. The home furnishings are old and slip-covered. Washing is done on a wringer washer and clothes are dried on the line. A new sewing machine and food freezer were bought on time payments. Mrs. Shaw tends a garden. The family's chief recreation is viewing their black-and-white television. The Shaw's gross about \$12,000 a year and generally net one third of this. John Shaw is in perpetual debt for about \$5,000. He is a poor credit risk, having to pay about 18 percent interest on loans.²
2. The setting is a mountain cabin located in the Appalachians of West Virginia where a narrow valley is bordered by two mountain ranges. The family, which is composed of mother, father, grandparents, and seven children, lives on a dirt road two miles from their nearest neighbor. The father works in the coal mines and the remainder of the family farms the hillsides near their home and raises a few animals for food. The family purchases only those items needed for survival, although they usually have a black-and-white T.V., a refrigerator, wringer washing machine, and a used automobile. Social life is primary with emphasis on church, school, and

family. Values held in high esteem are generosity, frugality, honesty, loyalty, hard work, and religious conviction.

3. The setting is rural Texas, the location for the filming of the "Last Picture Show." The family lives in low-cost, poorly maintained housing in a town of 3,000 that has an increasing depopulation factor. At least two members of the family work in a local industry that depends on cheap un-skilled labor. Although the "bread winners" miss farming, the new bureaucraticized life of the factory consumes their boredom and provides them with money for basic luxuries, such as tobacco and alcohol. The youth escape the community through urban migration. Basic economic and political power is concentrated in the hands of a few wealthy farmers and businessmen in the community and nearby city.

Each of these three images of rural America present differing needs and problems to be resolved as one seeks to provide meaningful educational opportunity to the populace. Yet, the three images presented are biased toward the lower social levels, and the ability to understand rural society well enough to experiment with change techniques is further complicated by the vested interests of scattered pockets of upper middle class, educated, wealthy persons. In spite of the location (South, Appalachia, or Midwest) and class structure, one can be sure that social change is already altering the life style of rural citizens.

Several basic trends in social change appear to be developing throughout rural America. They include:

1. less difference between urban and rural values,
2. centralization of decision making in rural public policy and agri-business,
3. decline of primary relationships (locality and family) and growth of secondary ones (business, interest, government),
4. fewer farms and greater productivity as urban and rural economic ties grow closer.³

The application of this knowledge of rural society to the environment in which a two year college administrator must operate provides some of the necessary background for understanding the changes that are desired and processes by which they can be achieved.

Understanding Social Change in Rural America

Social change is defined as a process over a period of

time that brings about shifts in social relationships. Perhaps the best example of this process is the study by James West entitled Plainville, U.S.A.. Between 1940-1955, the people of this typical rural village entered into an ever-widening circle of awareness, participation, and dependency upon the surrounding urban world.⁴ This shift is especially highlighted if one examines the modern American farm population and learns that it resembles modern urban population more than it does the farm population of 1900.⁵ This type of change is inevitable and man's efforts should be directed toward understanding it rather than attempting to oppose it.

Change theory for rural development, which involves more deliberate efforts to alter rural life, has generally taken the form of four approaches. The first involves a belief and process called amelioration. Individuals using this approach postulate that life can be improved and burdens relieved, thereby justifying their change as a positive social value. Missionaries and newsmen typify this approach to change and have established a reputation for zeal and conviction in their work. The second process is volunteerism or a very democratic self-help approach to community development. This effort depends heavily on local talent and internal efforts to educate and train individuals. The third process involves the catalyst who directs his participation or resources toward working "with" rather than "for" a community group. Usually, the individuals are specialists who bring resources to the community, gain acceptance and provide the catalytic action for change. The fourth approach involves a self-sacrifice concept where resources are redistributed through a planned process. This large scale type of generosity and willingness to share material resources with fellow citizens is little known in the modern world.

Social change, whether a natural force or a process manipulated by man, must be studied carefully in order to understand its impact on education. Alvin Toffler, John Gardner and Charles Reich are but a few authors who have addressed themselves to these problems and offer helpful insights to their readers.

Change Elements that Utilize Institutional Resources

Human Potential

The most valuable resource available in rural two-year colleges is the human potential of its employees. The individuals who staff the colleges in rural communities offer a tremendous amount of technical expertise and leadership that is not usually available outside the college. Frequently,

however, the rural community will accept the leadership of an educational officer in civic affairs, but only after he has been in the community for several years. In fact, college leaders, unless they are native to the area, have to cultivate friendships and exercise care not to be viewed as an out-side agitator who doesn't understand the community. The "town-gown" syndrome is accentuated in the rural setting.

Leadership Training

Leadership training for rural college educators is essential if they are to have an impact on their respective communities. The training should include knowledge of their field of expertise, knowledge of the rural lifestyle and trends, skills in human relationships, the ability to think and reason clearly and promptly, and patience to work with rather than for the "citizenry." Community leadership and training others in the community for assuming responsibility are excellent change elements. Community Action and HEW Projects in rural two year colleges have trained volunteers for all areas of civic action. Senior citizens, disadvantaged, handicapped, and other persons that require citizen action for assistance in rural communities are served by leadership training. Old patterns of independence and ignorance of basic human needs have been attacked through leadership training as a change technique.

Demonstration Projects

Demonstration programs that are designed to fit the particular characteristics of rural living are another element in change strategies. Extension agents have employed this technique for half a century and can be credited with major advancements in rural development. The introduction of electrification, scientific farming, home safety, technological time-saving devices, and better nutrition are advancements that extension agents have made in rural areas. Their success can be attributed in large measure to their demonstration method of introducing change. In rural two year colleges, programs must be designed that utilize the change techniques developed by extension agents. The experience of one college provides an example of the application of the methodology of the rural extension agent.

Ferrum College, a rural two-year college, initiated a pilot project for an elementary recreation program in Franklin County where the Board of Supervisors had neglected its responsibility for that service. Using the extension agent approach of working with the youth and interested adults, the college leaders organized a demonstration program in competitive sports. Within two years, the county had hired a full-

time director to assume responsibility for the program and to offer the service to the entire community. In the next four years, the program grew rapidly, but was limited in scope to only competitive athletics for youths. Once again, the college leaders offered a demonstration project in arts and crafts for children and senior citizens. A new recreation commission has already been appointed by the County Board of Supervisors and has budget requests and plans for dispersed centers for teaching creative crafts to all groups. At every stage of the program's development college personnel have provided leadership and leadership training for community persons. The college not only developed the demonstration program, but also designed it to be phased into a community operated project. Also, college personnel continue to provide consultative assistance for improving the program.

Transportation

Transportation has slowed progress in rural areas because distance and time involved in travel prevent concentration of population and efforts to resolve problems. However, excellent change agents for rural areas have been produced through the unique approaches to improving travel and its related problems. One rural community college utilizes mobile learning labs for its students so that the hours spent in transit to and from college can be productive. Several forms of media including audiotapes, videotapes, films, and printed materials are available on the specially designed mobile units. The improved automobile and highways have already aided in the transformation of many isolated rural communities. Yet, many challenges and opportunities lay ahead in the area of transportation for rural areas. In fact, this frontier will provide fertile ground for the development of change techniques for many years to come.

Culture and Folklife

The culture and folklife of rural communities provide meaningful insights into change techniques and creates an atmosphere for understanding the transformation that has occurred in the last half-century. The efforts of one college to preserve and study the folklore and folklife of a rural section in the Old Dominion have generated great enthusiasm. The college has begun a program of documenting the past culture through print, photo, video-tape, and a living museum. In one festival, approximately 10,000 persons came to the campus to see demonstrations of folk arts, crafts, and life styles once prevalent in the Blue Ridge Mountains of Virginia. The change techniques involved in this experience center on broadening cultural awareness and community education. The recent popularity and interest in folklore has

opened avenues of cooperation between this college and local citizens never before believed possible.

Physical Facilities and Utilization

The design and utilization of physical facilities at rural two year colleges can be a resource for change. The Grange movement and Farmers Alliances of the late nineteenth century proved that the lodge or a social gathering place opened avenues of change. If this change technique is to be valid, the structure and utilization plan must go beyond the normal classroom setting and incorporate a broader community concept. The interaction of isolated individuals made possible by a social center often produces very creative tendencies and impulses. Thus, the appropriate use of physical facilities holds great potential as a change technique in rural communities.

Communication Tools

Radios and televisions are as prevalent in rural areas as they are in urban areas. The current efforts to develop change techniques using these media at the institutional level are fairly limited. Some programming stations and a few small stations do provide meaningful service, but costs prohibit educational institutions in rural areas from broad use of this influential change agent. However, if the college would cooperate with private industry and government, this tool for education and change could touch many lives in rural areas. Two-year college administrators must utilize every communication channel available if their programs are to reach and to have a meaningful impact on the sparsely settled population of rural society.

Management and Planning

Administrators in rural two-year colleges must be exemplary models in the communities for development and implementation of management and planning systems. The college example has often times influenced the secondary and elementary levels of education, other social organizations, political processes, and life patterns of individuals who aspire to higher social levels. Modern planning and management systems such as PPBS, computer-sharing operations, management by objectives, and technical assistance consultants can be introduced into many rural societies through college programs.

Change Elements that Utilize Resources Within the Rural Community

Rural Development Commissions

Many states have created rural development commissions to research, study, identify problems, and recommend policy for bringing about constructive change. This writer has studied carefully one such commission report, the 1970 Report of the Rural Affairs Study Commission for Virginia. A task force of legislators, consultants, and professional researchers spent two years on the project with about two man months of professional time being allocated to each of the following twelve subjects: jobs and business opportunities; education; health care; government structure; rural industries; housing; transportation and communication; power and fuel; banking; natural resources; recreation and cultural opportunities.⁶ The workshops, seminars, conferences, and public hearings held throughout rural Virginia opened many avenues for creative thought and change. This type of community involvement in identification of problems and consensus policymaking is an excellent change element. Rural two-year colleges should provide leadership in this type of endeavor and build up on the knowledge gained to assist in the implementation process.

The Appalachian Regional Commission is an example of a broader planning and action-oriented body. This commission has had a major impact on the people of Appalachia by bringing attention to needs and assets of this part of rural America. Transportation, communication, education, industrial development, health care, and recreational activities have been expanded in the region through the coordinated efforts made possible by the commission. Two-year college administrators must be involved in this type of activity whenever possible, but they especially should apply their energies to the implementation of programs recommended by the commission. New revenues and public support usually follow commission actions and thereby enable changes to be implemented.

Extension Agencies

Agricultural stabilization, 4-H Clubs, home extension, cooperatives, and water control boards have aided in transforming rural America in the last century. Their methods and style of bringing about change are well known and documented through the work of the land-grant colleges. The extension agent performs his work with a comprehensive approach to particular problems in community development. He attempts to convince the community that he can ameliorate a bad condition and relieve burdens through the knowledge he

has to offer. He seeks a large measure of volunteerism and self-help, as he works with groups or individuals. He acts as a catalyst for self discovery and allows demonstration techniques to prove his arguments. He attempts to advance the concept that the expanded knowledge and resulting success brings sacrifice in other areas; for example, increased earnings or production means less crop support or increased taxes. Rural two-year college leaders need to study carefully the extension agent model in order to possibly relate it to their particular experience.

Civic and Political Structures

Although boards of supervisors, town councils, and school boards are normally viewed as defenders of the "status quo", their roles in rural society offer much potential for change. Essential services require close cooperation between county or town officials and college personnel because of revenues, water-sewage and garbage services, police and fire protection, and assistance on transportation and communication. Thus, the higher levels of education and expertise supplied by college personnel can have a significant impact if it is accepted in the community. College leaders can often gain positions on major councils or boards, but equally important or greater contributions can be made through consultant assistance to these bodies. Social and civic structures such as churches, guilds, chamber of commerces, cooperatives, and county fairs are excellent organizations in which to intruduce new concepts, innovations, and knowledge for dissemination to the larger public. Rural two-year colleges have many opportunities to provide programs, demonstrations, performances, and consultants for these activities. The potential for bringing about change is limited only by the imagination and energy of the participants.

School Consolidation and Desegregation

An example of forced change and the resulting backlash of reaction and intrascience can be observed in the school consolidation and desegregation movements. The charged atmosphere that has surrounded both of these actions prevented many of the normal processes in evolutionary change from occurring. Consolidation has had the effect of diminishing the importance of the local school in a small community and has added to the urban migration syndrome. However, desegregation has produced fewer problems in rural areas than urban ones, mainly because transportation has always been a major financial and time consuming burden. Many rural communities have had less busing after integrating their schools than they did before the 1954 court action.

A vacuum has been created in many small communities by the loss of local schools and by changes required to satisfy desegregation guidelines. New change techniques should be developed in two-year colleges in order to provide communities with new social centers, clearing houses for activities, and a new focus for community affairs. Rural two-year colleges must aid in the development of these change elements in order to assist with the after effects of consolidation and desegregation.

Change Elements That Utilize The Resources of Urban Society

Educational T.V.

Rural students attending institutions that have a less extensive curriculum and fewer professors stand to benefit more from the offerings of educational T.V. than urban ones. Television can be an important teaching resource for both the home and classroom. Yet, this important media is not universally available to rural areas. In fact, in Virginia, as late as 1972, two sections of the state (Southwest and Eastern Shore) did not have educational television and approximately eight other counties were not reached. Although most of these areas now have access to educational T.V., it is very limited and used infrequently. The potential of educational television programming as a change technique has been documented on several occasions. One excellent example is the success of the well-known Sesame Street series.

In Wisconsin, Project RFD (Rural Family Development) offers a delivery package of television, homestudy materials, toll free telephone problem solving device, and home visitation in an effort to overcome rural illiteracy and absence of higher learning opportunities. This approach helps to overcome the social stigma of admitting illiteracy; provides motivation through the "back door" approach to education (interest building before substance offering); and packages a very effective delivery system. Other rural two-year colleges need to expand their use of educational television as a learning resource and change technique.

State and Regional Planning

Federal and state governments have recently initiated or required regional planning programs and coordination of related activities which utilize tax revenues. Several areas of potential change that two-year college administrators should observe carefully and become involved in whenever

possible, are: (1) regional planning districts with emphasis on land use, water and sewer, police and fire protection, and other essential services; (2) regional health units that bring together expertise and resources unavailable in dispersed centers; (3) educational coordinating and control bodies for all levels of public education; (4) transportation systems that bring together federal and local dollars for large construction projects; and (5) cultural arts performing groups and programs that are currently having financial difficulties are being reorganized into subsidized touring troupes. Each of these external forces will provide many opportunities for the development of change techniques to assist the general populace in accepting the new requirements and opportunities imposed by government.

Federal Funds and Regulation

Federal involvement in the day-to-day lives of citizens and institutions has increased dramatically in the last half-century. With the federal tax dollars distributed to many different communities in rural America have come regulations and guidelines for development of programs. The change element of federal involvement whether from finances or direct intervention has played a significant role in the country. It is possible to use federal "seed money" or shared revenues as a very effective change technique. However, many unknown qualifications and restrictions on the use of the funds have created greater change than the innovators envisioned. Therefore, college administrators can assist by exercising care to be sure that the planned changes do occur without serious negative side effects. The same danger is inherent in any change environment and needs to be evaluated carefully. Rural two-year colleges have excellent opportunities to attract federal "seed money" for community and educational development. Administrators should not neglect these important change techniques as they pursue different alternatives for institutional advancement.

Summary

The major thesis of this paper is built on the assumption that planned change and creative response to evolutionary social change are both possible and desirable. Planned change involves goal setting, action planning, action taking, and evaluation. This process-oriented view of change makes possible careful study of community needs and ways to achieve desired goals. Planned change involves more than theory since application and understanding of desired ends determine results.

Individuals who foster change must be perceptive to the

history and current needs of his constituency. If one is to be an innovator, he must take chances and not fear failure. He must also comprehend the extent and nature of resources at his disposal for creating change. Such resources are available at personal, institutional, local, and national levels of responsibility.

Equally important to the study of process-oriented change is the creative response to evolutionary change. The brief descriptions of the reality of this type of alteration in rural lifestyles and values highlights the necessity of responding creatively. More lasting results are often achieved through this type of change technique or strategy than through process-oriented change. The act of a rural college elevating the educational level of a community exemplifies the potential for change in this latter category.

Rural two-year colleges are located in areas of the country with the greatest potential for change in the next fifty years. One national study on attitudes toward rural-urban America may be summarized as follows:

- a. Rural man prefers to live where he is, but believes cities offer greater economic opportunity.
- b. Only 15% of the population surveyed (rural and urban) preferred large cities to rural areas.
- c. Three out of four rural Americans were happy with their current lifestyle while only one in four urbanites expressed satisfaction with urban America.
- d. 91% of the interviewees believed small towns were the best location to raise children.⁹

The author's conclusion to these insights into attitudes about rural America indicates that if rural areas were to offer economic, health, and educational advantages relatively equal to urban areas and if rural residents had equality of access to such services, then the depopulation of rural America would cease. These tasks offer enough "food for thought" for change strategies through rural two-year colleges for several decades in the future.

This writer predicts an increasing pace in the movement back to rural areas in the next half-century. If this prediction holds true, the changes in the progress to upgrade the quality of life of rural America will have to be accelerated to a pace that will transform rural living. Just as 1975 rural America more closely resembles urban life than it does 1925 rural U.S.A., lifestyles a half-century from now will be similarly transformed. Justice Oliver Wendall Holmes expressed my sentiment on the hopes and manner for these constructive changes to occur: "The mode through which the inevitable comes to pass is effort."¹⁰

Footnotes

¹Thomas Kuhn, Structure of Scientific Revolution (University of Chicago, 1962), p. 112

²Larry Van Dyne, "Reaching Rural America", Change, Vol. 5, no. 1 (February 1973), p. 40.

³James H. Copp (Ed.), Our Changing Rural Society: Perspectives and Trends (Ames: Iowa University Press, 1964), p. 42.

⁴James West, Plainville, U.S.A. (Columbia University Press, 1955), p. 55.

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⁶The Rural Affairs Study Commission Report 1970. Division of State Planning and Community Affairs, Richmond, Virginia, 1970, p. 52.

⁷Ibid.

⁸Larry Van Dyne, "Reaching Rural America", Change, Vol. 5, no. 1 (February 1973), pp: 38-39.

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¹⁰John Gardner, The Renewal of Confidence, (New York's Pocket Books, 1971) p. 103.



"CURRICULUM REFORM IN RURAL COLLEGES"

by

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CURRICULUM REFORM IN RURAL COLLEGES

Thank you. It'll be a lot easier five minutes from now to tell you how happy I am to be here -- the fact is, I am never happy to be making a speech for the first five minutes. Then I kind of settle in and get with it and enjoy the whole thing. That's my style. That's part of my identity.

And that's what I want to talk with you about today -- IDENTITY. In order to talk about curriculum reform, we have to be aware that we reform - RE-FORM - for reason -- for need -- not for the sake of reform alone.

Let me lay a little groundwork here. Most of you don't know me, so I'll tell you that my background includes about equal measures of instruction, curriculum development, learning resources, and staff development. I take a very comprehensive view of curricular problems and see all kinds of interrelationships regarding them within the community college structure. I've been in the university setting for a year and a half, and I don't feel comfortable with it yet. I come out of the small private college and the community college field, and a large university seems more cumbersome and less focused than a community college, somehow.

Universities have their problems with curriculum, too, and I'm right in the middle of that here. To illustrate how aware of this I am, let me tell you this little story: It seems that there was this tribe of natives living in the jungle, and their king had served them well for almost 50 years. Some of his advisors got together and decided they wanted to do something special to honor him on that 50th anniversary. They put their heads together and thought and discussed and finally one of them spied the king's old throne in the corner of the grass hut that served as the council chamber. "Ah ha!" he said, and on the spot they decided to build the king a new throne! So they cut down bamboo, lashed it together with grasses, sent their fastest runner to the nearest trading post to barter for gilt paint, and generally did a beautiful job of creating this new throne. The big day came, and the gift was brought in to the king, and he was delighted. But then he said, "Now what will I do with my old throne? I've sat on it for 50 years, and my father before me, and his father before him. I can't just discard it." So he decided

to use the new and store the old: Quickly his counselors braided grasses into ropes and rigged up a kind of pulley situation, and the old throne was lifted up into place in the tall ceiling of the grass hut and stored there. Now time passed, and the damp climate of the area being what it was, eventually the grasses became damp and began to wear through, and one day when the king was seated on his new throne, the grass rope broke and the old throne came tumbling down on the king's head and killed him! Now the moral of the story is: people who live in grass houses shouldn't stow thrones!

Now, folks, that will be my one "joke" of the day, because I'm a punster, and I can guarantee that the level of humor will only get worse! But professionally speaking, at the university we're living in a grass house, and it isn't only the rural college that could be looking at curriculum reform! Nevertheless, that is our topic today.

Let's see if we can think of a reason or two for curriculum reform: how about serving the needs of the community and student population, for one? How about institutional survival for another? How about educational accountability?

There is very little I can say about curriculum reform in rural colleges that would be different from curriculum reform in any college. I see it as something we all do, healthily and periodically. If you feel an imperative now, well join the group! Sometimes reform comes about through financial crisis, sometimes through student unrest and criticism, sometimes through professional leadership or self-study. Self-study may be the most valuable technique we have access to.

I ran into a wonderful phrase recently, and it sums up a lot of what my philosophic concerns lead me into. That phrase is VALIDITY OF SELF. Student personnel types will say, "Of course, that's what life is all about! The humanists in education will say, "That's what education is all about." My context comes from a spiritual search, but that is by the by. What is primary is that the search for self, the validation of self, is a fascinating drive we all share. We all search for identity.

Moving that from the personal level, let us see if that can be applied on an institutional level. Could we say that an institution has an identity? (Don't let me lose you; I'll tie this in with curriculum in a minute!) Is there such a thing as institutional identity? If someone said to you, "In 200 words or less (1 typewritten page), describe your institution to me. Tell me what flavor of its own it has. What kind of a community does it serve? What kind of

needs are you attempting to meet? Where do your graduates go when they leave you? Generally, describe your faculty."

One institution might describe itself as essentially conservative with a rather traditional faculty and a rather conservative town of citizens. Most (80%) of its students have immediate plans to go on to a senior university; only 20% expect to study in vocational-technical programs. What kind of curriculum would you anticipate that institution would have? What kind of strategies of instruction might be used? We could all make educated guesses, right or wrong, but if that institution is realistic about itself, its curriculum probably matches its identity. Take an opposite example: suppose Institution #2 believes itself to be very student-based, liberal, humanistic, innovative. Then the identity of that college would be reflected in its curriculum, in all likelihood.

That identity, that expression of purpose, that establishment of institutional objectives is an extendible frontier. Whoever founded the institution had a concept of its identity and set goals and drew plans and hired a faculty to help build that concept. It may change or modify with the years, respond or not respond to change, be sensitive to its community or not - but the curriculum would reflect the concepts or changing concepts...An extendible frontier.

We all know about self-studies; they are valuable efforts. Suppose you did a self-study and decided there were enough questions that you had better look at the idea of reform. Try the term revision. Believe me, there is no shotgun prescription. If there is one thing I am sure of, it is that we cannot be helped by formula. Step #1, though, is: identify your institution, describe it in terms of what you want it to be, what you want to do. Which way points your compass? What are you after? These are institutional goals, or institutional objectives. In order to set your course, you have to know where you're going.

What are some of the tools to help you? Contact in the community; needs assessment, advisory involvement. You can't afford to do needs assessment? In my opinion, you can't afford not to do it! (Sign up some faculty in our off-campus program, let them be exposed to the techniques, and let them "have at it!") Funds are too scarce, and accountability too pressing to ignore the value of this tool. Advisory groups, collectively and individually, give you good feedback. They know the competencies needed. They may or may not know the processes needed to get to the competencies, but they can help you set the parameters. Check accreditation standards, special licensure of technical fields. Check the special expertise of your faculty; get

them involved. THESE ARE PROCESSES.

Every program, every course should have rhyme and reason for being. What courses or experiences make up your general education program? Can you justify all of them? Does their inclusion lead you toward your institutional goals? Are there gaps? Are the courses there because they are traditional? Do they reflect a good balance between historical base and current trends? Can you analyze each special program the same way? In short, are you meeting the needs of the community in general, and of individuals specifically? Who helps you analyze this? Your faculty, your advisory groups, the students. THIS IS ALL CONTENT. You reach outward and you reach inward.

Now, curriculum is no island to itself. It affects, and is affected by every other aspect of the educational structure - from the policy level to the financing level; spaces and facilities have to be counted in; media support services, counseling services, career advisement, clerical and duplication assistance, the students - count them all in.

Probably the most crucial elements of all are the faculty. Faculty morale and motivation play a big part. Their educational background; their teaching and management skills; their flexibility and adaptability or degrees of openness; their commitment to the job, to the students, to a community college philosophy; their perceptions of themselves and their roles - all these combine to create a climate for facilitation or innovation, or the opposite.

Staff development may be the secret to viable curriculum reform. What gives you your impetus? Student population growth or steady state or regression? Changing community needs? The push for accountability? Faculty and staff willingness and readiness, skill and ability may make all the difference in the world. Can your faculty and staff identify problems, assess them with some degree of objectivity, and plan comprehensively accordingly? Can they imaginatively create options and alternatives? Can they set objectives? Can they provide alternative strategies and paths? Do they make good use of materials and facilities? Do they know how to measure and evaluate? Are they transactional with their colleagues and their students? Are they sensitive to needs of the content area, to student needs, to institutional goals? All these items play a part in curriculum. It is hard to say where curriculum leaves off and instruction begins, but these items are all attitudes and skills that can be fostered. In addition, had I time, I could talk about behavioral or instructional objectives, criterion-referenced evaluation, competency statement writings, cognitive style -- all these are related to attitudes

and understandings and skills that can come out of staff development, and are not necessarily that hard to learn, when personnel are motivated.

I become very hopeful and excited when I see what exposure to concepts like Michigan's Dr. Joseph Hill's Educational Sciences (Cognitive Style) or Dr. James McHolland's Human Potential Seminars can do - for faculty, for students, for instructional programs. Dr. Hill's work with cognitive style gives us a research base, a common terminology, and real understandings, skills, and strategies that go along with HOW PEOPLE LEARN. Can you imagine the impact of that on the education world? Some people think that knowledge and content is our business, but I firmly believe that facilitating the learning process is our primary business because knowledge and content can grow or be modified. I would love to share more of this with you, but that is a whole speech or a whole institute of its own! Then Dr. McHolland and his associates' work with the Human Potential gives us clues and skills in working with people to create empathy and raise self-concept. Put the two together and you have an important combination: self-knowledge concerning learning and good, realistic self-concept! The instructor who knows how to manage and facilitate those two areas would really enjoy dealing with curriculum.

If you look at all the factors I have just mentioned, and add in other staff development aspects such as in-service courses and shared workshops taught by peers who have special expertise, you realize that I am discussing the secret ingredients to produce active, well-motivated faculty to deal with curriculum -- and those secret ingredients are INVOLVEMENT and RELEVANCE.

Now, there is no doubt in my mind that small colleges and rural colleges do have special curriculum problems, but so do large colleges and urban colleges. Central to all these problems, not counting the external, financial problems, these two items emerge as the greatest: (1) The need to establish identity. Know who you are and who you want to be, as an institution, then set those goals and do not try to be all things. Be cohesive about your planning and systematic about moving toward your objectives, basing your decisions on the best information and the best advisement you can get. (2) Staff development. Learn to be self-assessors and problem-solvers. Design your curriculum based on need and get the most mileage you can by being coordinating, flexible, imaginative, accountable, and responsible. Get your faculty involved.

It is my conviction that the institution that tends to these two greatest problems -- with any kind of responsible administration at all -- will be a cohesive institution, a

facilitating institution; a humanistic institution, and a financially healthy institution; one not in upheaval because of collective bargaining or faculty/student unrest; one that moves with the times. I do not mean to be simplistic about it, because I am only too aware of the complexities.

We say we need a nation of people who can think for themselves and be responsible. That's really what I am suggesting for our institutions and our faculties. Small colleges need this most of all because of the limitations set on them in terms of finances, space, and size of staff. Back to identity -- this is how you achieve it, and all of us seek it. All of us are seekers, or we wouldn't be here, looking for new clues, new answers, new insights. I may not have brought any of those to you, but from my perspective, I have shared with you my practical philosophy. I am convinced that an institution that realistically knows itself, sets goals, provides for professional confidence and backing and training creates an atmosphere or a climate that is self-generating, self motivating, self-renewing and aware. And I can't think of a better combination, to face whatever curricular problems we confront.

Thank you.

REPORTS OF WORK SESSIONS

"OUTLINE OF WORK SESSIONS FOR FIRST GROUP"

by

William H. McCoy

President

Lord Fairfax Community College
Middletown, Virginia

"OUTLINE OF WORK SESSIONS FOR SECOND GROUP"

by

Burton C. Beck

Dean of Instruction

James H. Faulker State Junior College
Bay Minette, Alabama

"OUTLINE OF WORK SESSIONS FOR THIRD GROUP"

by

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OUTLINE OF WORK SESSIONS
FOR FIRST GROUP

Problem/Issue #1:
Understaffing in the Small, Rural Community College

1. What is the nature of the problem?
Ways of resolving understaffing.
2. What would be the most desirable solution/situation?
 - a. Increase in funds.
 - b. Change in staffing patterns.
 - c. Use of volunteerism.
 - d. Need for state to perceive need for different staffing patterns.
3. What are the obstacles in reaching the desired solution/situation?
 - a. Economic patterns.
 - b. Inflated job requirements.
 - c. Statewide determination of staffing patterns.

4. What are the means of overcoming the obstacles?

The group was unable to identify specific means for overcoming the obstacles.

Problem/Issue #2:
Entry Levels of Students

1. What is the nature of the problem?
Variety of entry levels of students into the community college.
2. What would be the most desirable solution/situation?

Remediation by the use of the Learning Resource Centers with appropriate materials.

3. What are the obstacles in reaching the desired solution/situation?
 - a. Student attitude (stigma)
 - b. Appropriate instructional materials
 - c. Instructional time
4. What are the means for overcoming the obstacles?

Continuous entry for those needing remedial work.

Problem/Issue #3:
Faculty and Staff Development

1. What is the nature of the problem?

Insufficient funds for the purpose of faculty and staff development.
2. What would be the most desirable solution/situation?
 - a. Setting aside budget allowances.
 - b. Identifying areas needing attention.
 - c. Making opportunities available to attend/hold instructional clinics.
 - d. Making provisions for a college-wide faculty-staff development group.
3. What are the obstacles in reaching the desired solution/situation?
 - a. State and/or local budgetary limitations
 - b. Attitude of some faculty and administration
 - c. Non-recognition of differences between large and small institutions
4. What are the means for overcoming the obstacles?

Time, effort, energy, and money.

OUTLINE OF WORK SESSIONS
FOR SECOND GROUP

Problem/Issue #1:

Stigma of Being "Rural" in Attitudes of People

1. What is the nature of the problem?

The stigma attached to the rural community college in the attitudes of citizens, teachers, high school students, and potential faculty and staff members.

2. What would be the most desirable solution/situation?

To develop a sense of pride and feeling that the college is a part of the community -- the college should be an integral part of the community and provide programs and services to all members of the community.

3. What are the obstacles in reaching the desired solution/situation?

- a. Lack of interaction between the college and the community.
- b. Lack of articulation of programs and services to high school students.
- c. Lack of leadership in the college to provide a community-wide image based upon sound public relations.
- d. Lack of educating the community as to advantages of rural living.

4. What are the means for overcoming the obstacles?

- a. The college should develop comprehensive programs to provide a wide variety of services to the community.
- b. The college should involve advisory groups and citizen participation in the planning and operation of the college.
- c. A continuous public relations program should be developed. The more the college can involve the community in its programs the more the community will develop a feeling for the college.
- d. Faculty should be selected and oriented to the advantages of working in a rural community college.

Problem/Issue #2:
Faculty & Staff Commitment to a Comprehensive
Community College Program

1. What is the nature of the problem?

To recruit and orient faculty who are committed to the comprehensive community college philosophy.

2. What would be the most desirable solution/situation?

To have faculty & staff which have been adequately prepared in graduate school to accept the role and responsibility for providing a comprehensive program in the community college.

3. What are the obstacles in reaching the desired solution/situation?

- a. Lack of adequate professional training for community college teachers.
- b. Too many faculty and staff with traditional ideas of education.
- c. Unwillingness on part of many faculty to assume the extra workload and responsibility necessary to have comprehensive program in small rural community college.

4. What are the means for overcoming the obstacles?

- a. Faculty and staff members should be recruited, hired, and oriented for the role and responsibilities necessary for a rural community college.
- b. All faculty and staff members should be involved in determining the goals and objectives for the college.
- c. Full utilization should be made of faculty workshops and in-service training programs at the college.
- d. Faculty members should be tenured only when they have demonstrated an understanding and commitment to the comprehensive small rural community college.

Problem/Issue #3:
Program Development in the Community College

1. What is the nature of the problem?

Lack of adequate remedial, vocational-occupational, and career programs in small rural community colleges, particularly in small-rural transfer oriented community colleges.

2. What would be the most desirable solution/situation?

To develop a comprehensive program that would provide an opportunity for students to pursue a program of education based upon their interests, abilities, and the career opportunities available upon completion of the program of study.

3. What are the obstacles in reaching the desired solution/situation?

- a. Lack of adequate funding and sufficient number of students in a comprehensive program.
- b. Lack of ample local career opportunities.
- c. Lack of adequate transportation and residence facilities for students.
- d. Lack of adequately trained staff to provide comprehensive program.

4. What are the means for overcoming the obstacles?

- a. Develop portable lab facilities that can be used in various locations.
- b. Develop regional programs with other institutions and provide transportation and residence facilities.
- c. Use flexible scheduling and base course completion upon competency in course.
- d. Provide adequate student personnel services in order to assist students in selecting suitable career programs.

OUTLINE OF WORK SESSIONS
FOR THIRD GROUP

Problem/Issue #1:

What Techniques and Strategies are Employed to Maximize
Staffing Patterns with Shifting Enrollment Patterns?

1. What is the nature of the problem?

Rural community colleges are confronted with a challenge to maximize staff utilization which is made more difficult as a result of shifting enrollment patterns. Due to the small number of full-time staff at rural community colleges, broad preparation rather than specialization has always been desirable. However, with the current dramatic shifts in enrollment patterns, strategies in addition to broad preparation of faculty members must be employed if staff utilization is to be maximized.

2. What would be the most desirable solution?

The most desirable solution to this problem would be to develop strategies which would enable an institution to increase or decrease the size of the teaching staff depending upon student enrollment demands. In order to maximize teaching efficiency, the college would need to have the ability to increase and decrease teaching capacity at the beginning of each enrollment period. However, it is essential that the quality of the instructional program should not be sacrificed for flexibility in staffing.

3. What are the obstacles in reaching the desired solution?

There are a number of obstacles which tend to deter flexibility in changing the instructional capacity of a rural college. The following list identifies some common examples of these obstacles:

- a. Some disciplines are taught by a single faculty member. Therefore, if that faculty member is released, there is no one remaining who is qualified to teach courses within the discipline. For example, if a college has only one person teaching in the field of chemistry, a reduction in the chemistry teaching staff would delete

- chemistry.
- b. Many rural colleges do not have a large pool of qualified part-time faculty from which to draw.
- c. Many colleges have a high ratio full-time to part-time teaching faculty.
- d. A large proportion of the faculty are trained in a single discipline.

4. What are the means for overcoming the obstacles?

Although there are a number of obstacles which tend to minimize the flexibility of an institution with reference to efficient staffing, there are some strategies which can be utilized to increase flexibility. The strategies are of two types -- those which give a college the ability to meet increasing enrollment demands and those which assist a college when enrollment demands are decreasing. The following list includes some techniques which provide a college with the potential to respond to changing student demands:

- a. Design a faculty development program which provides "cross-training" to enable a faculty member to teach in two or more disciplines.
- b. Develop a staffing pattern which utilizes a small nucleus of full-time teachers and provides for increasing student demands with part-time instructors. A concomitant commitment with this strategy is to evaluate carefully the instruction provided by part-time faculty members.
- c. Utilize full-time faculty members to develop community services programs when traditional teaching loads drop below a full-time level.
- d. Develop arrangements with universities to provide instruction through utilization of interns.
- e. Utilize faculty members with less than a full-time load to develop federal projects. This approach has been utilized successfully to offset problems generated by declining and/or shifting enrollment patterns.

In summary, caution should be exercised when increasing the full-time staff of an institution. When an institution increases the full-time teaching staff, it relinquishes some flexibility in responding to enrollment shifts or declines. However, when full-time instructors are employed, ability to teach in two or more areas should be a high priority for selection. Full-time faculty who have a narrow and highly specialized teaching capability should be provided with an opportunity to develop additional teaching capabilities. Finally, increased utilization of part-time faculty should be considered in order to respond to rapid increases in enrollment demands.

Problem/Issue #2:

Community Services/Continuing Education Programs:

How Do You Begin; How Do You Recruit Students;

How Do You Evaluate Quality?

1. What is the nature of the problem?

In order to design and implement a successful community services program in a rural community college, three key factors are essential ingredients. First, a very broad philosophy should be developed which does not restrict the development of a comprehensive program. For example, the philosophy should include the ability to provide services which are not strictly instructional in nature. Secondly, there should be a strong and positive commitment for developing the program. It should be understood by the college staff and the community that the community services program is as important as the transfer program of the institution. Finally, there should be an ongoing assessment of the needs of the various groups of individuals within the communities to be served.

2. What would be the most desirable solution?

The most desired solution for designing and implementing a community services program would be to have: (a) a comprehensive and well understood philosophy, (b) a comprehensive assessment of the needs of the communities, (c) and adequate resources to meet the needs of the communities.

3. What are the obstacles in reaching the desired solution?

The two most common and difficult obstacles in the development of a community services program at a rural college are: (a) a lack of understanding of the nature and purposes of the program, and (b) a lack of funds to support the program.

4. What are the means for overcoming the obstacles?

To initiate and develop a viable comprehensive program of community services, a number of strategies can be utilized. Many of the techniques are easy and inexpensive to implement. All of these strategies have been utilized by some rural colleges to develop and provide services to citizens within their districts. They are as follows:

- a. An individual should be identified by the college president who has overall responsibility for the development of community services. This individual could have additional responsibilities, as necessary.
- b. A broad philosophical statement which explains the nature of the program should be developed and publicized. This statement should be understood by the college staff and by other community leaders.
- c. The president should emphasize that each employee of the college has a commitment to provide services to the community.
- d. Each staff member of the college should develop a personal list of community service capabilities which is filed with the director of the program. This list would provide the director with rapid access to the expertise needed to fill many of the needs and requests of the community.
- e. The director should visit a number of colleges which have successful programs operating. Many techniques which are operational at one institution can be implemented by another college with little if any modification.
- f. The director should spend a significant amount of time with various community agencies, civic groups, and special interest groups. The contacts with these groups can provide information relative to community needs. Also, the contacts often provide individuals with expertise to provide community services.
- g. The director should develop a list of individuals from the community who can provide expertise to assist in serving the community. Many business and professional leaders will assist in special projects without charge to the community.
- h. The director should develop a working relationship with universities and state agencies which often provide assistance to communities at no charge to the institution.
- i. The director should also seek to provide services which are of a cultural or entertainment nature. There are often federal, state or community sources of funds to assist in providing these types of activities.
- j. A record of individual and group requests for services should be developed. These requests indicate perceived community needs. Also, brief questionnaires can be utilized to elicit needs perceived by various community groups.
- k. There should be an ongoing program of evaluation for community services. It should include a brief evaluation by each participant. Another technique utilized by many community services directors is to check attendance in events that occur over a period of several meetings.

Problem/Issue #3:
How Does the Rural College Successfully Compete for
Federal Funds in View of Full-time
Grantsmen at Large Colleges?

1. What is the nature of the problem?

Rural colleges often cannot afford to initially fund a full-time federal grantsman. This makes it difficult for the small college to compete with large colleges for federal funds.

2. What would be the most desirable solution?

There are two acceptable solutions to the problem. One is to develop the resources to have a full-time federal projects officer. Another solution is to have the ability to secure funds without a full-time officer.

3. What are the obstacles in reaching the desired solution?

The initial obstacles in securing federal funds are:
(a) a lack of expertise as to the sources and procedures for obtaining funds, and (b) a lack of released time to learn the techniques for pursuing funds.

4. What are the means for overcoming the obstacles?

The following strategies can be utilized by rural colleges to assist in improving their ability to compete for federal funds:

- a. A consortium can be formed which employs one full-time grantsman for several colleges. This technique can secure a highly trained individual at a fraction of the cost that an individual college would have to pay. However, cooperation between colleges is a key to the success of any consortium arrangement.
- b. An experienced grantsman can be utilized as a consultant to provide skilled assistance in developing proposals. Some of these individuals will provide assistance at no charge, or will charge a fee only if the project is funded.
- c. Some states provide assistance at the state level in developing projects. This is a valuable free resource for developing proposals.
- d. A technique which has been utilized rather successfully at one college is to encourage each faculty member to submit one proposal each year. This technique has several benefits. It insures involvement at the instructional level. It also helps to identify individuals who may be skilled in this area. Those indi-

viduals can often be provided with some released time to develop comprehensive proposals affecting several instructional areas.

If the above mentioned strategies are utilized, most colleges can develop the federal projects area into one which more than pays for itself. However, this could take two or more years before it is financially self-sufficient. Also, some colleges may prefer not to develop the funding area into a full-time commitment. The above strategies give those colleges some suggestions as to mechanisms for competing for federal funds without a full-time commitment.

APPENDIX A: PARTICIPANT ROSTER

SOUTHEASTERN COMMUNITY COLLEGE
LEADERSHIP PROGRAM WORKSHOP
March 12-14, 1975

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